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ABSTRACT

This text is one of a series of three handbooks, each intended to provide busy educational executives with a brief, practical overview of one major issue or movement. This book aims at helping administrators become acquainted with the broad dimensions of the accountability problem, showing them some of the ongoing alternatives as well as those being developed, and pointing out the pitfalls to be avoided and the guidelines to be observed in striving for greater accountability. The author first discusses educational change and the role of the educational administrator in the change process. He considers the concept of accountability, the transitions taking place in its meaning, and the development of accountability in education. In an effort to assist administrators in developing an educationally accountable program for their schools, the author then provides a model which offers many options in the type of accountability program that can be selected. He concludes with some advice on how to publicly present educationally accountable programs. The handbook also contains a list of the names and addresses of persons and/or districts involved in educational accountability and detailed footnotes. Related documents are EA 005 281 and EA 005 282. (Author/DN)

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An Administrator's Handbook on Educational Accountability

Prepared for
AASA National Academy
for School Executives

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All members of the American Association of School Administrators receive a copy of this book as part of their 1973 membership.

FOREWORD

When the term *educational accountability* first appeared, most of us felt that we knew exactly what it meant and what kind of behavior it required of us. Now that we have lived with it and studied it for awhile, our growing understanding of what it really means makes us know that the concept is neither simple to define and understand nor easy to accomplish.

In 1970 I asked a graduate class I was teaching to conduct interviews with a variety of lay people about accountability and its implications for the schools. The results of those interviews revealed that, at first, laymen saw the teacher as the one who was to be held accountable. "If kids don't learn well enough and fast enough, the teacher should be fired." That was their definition of accountability. That was how it was to be applied. A nice, neat, simple concept, with the teacher always under the gun.

With some prodding by the interviewer, an interviewee would acknowledge that accountability should extend to the principal, central office administrators, superintendent, board of education, citizens of the community, the state legislature, and even the federal government. Only when he saw that the teacher's performance could be frustrated by actions or neglect by one or many of these individuals or groups did the full complexity of accountability become understandable to him. At that point in the interview the layman frequently expressed considerable frustration. He liked the idea of accountability, but in its complex form he saw it as something very difficult to comprehend and to apply.

Educators have followed along a similar road. From a simple idea with easy applicability, accountability has become a complex concept that requires careful application if the benefit it promises is to be realized. The AASA's National Academy for School Execu-

tives is trying to help. Its main vehicle has been its seminars and institutes, but these by definition can serve only a small percentage of education's leadership. Other ways are being tried, and this handbook, based in part on the NASE seminars on accountability, is one of them.

We asked Lesley Browder, already the author of two major works on educational accountability, to take on the tough assignment of producing a handbook that could give the school executive a handle on the concept of accountability and a choice of ways to start implementing it. What follows, to our way of thinking, succeeds in doing just that.

It is the fervent hope of the American Association of School Administrators that this publication will assist school people in understanding and applying the principle of accountability to all school operations. If that comes about, our schools will be better, our teachers will have greater job satisfaction, and all of those who support teachers' activities will know that they have made an important contribution to the learning that takes place in the classroom.

Paul B. Salmon
Executive Secretary, AASA

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PREFACE

Victor Hugo noted that an idea whose time has come is not to be resisted. The time has come for accountability—educational accountability.

The notion of accountability is not new. It dates back to biblical times, and up to 1898 it showed traces of application to education in nineteenth century England. Its most recent application to education is freshly minted, adding a slightly different twist to a venerable concept. In oversimplified form, the idea is to hold schools answerable for their students' learning outcomes.

Still emerging in its application to education, the accountability concept has a malleable quality. It is capable of being shaped in many ways. Definitions of educational accountability abound, and so do suggestions on its application. Since the late 1960's when Leon Lessinger gave national visibility to the idea as associate commissioner in the U.S. Office of Education, no single work on the subject has been able to set down the concept in a way that etches it in stone tablets (a process known academically as producing a "definitive work"). If you like working with a concept that has a cutting edge, broad application, and is still in transition, it might be worth your time exploring more deeply. You, too, can shape its destiny.

Another quality of the concept is its stickiness; that is, many other concepts in the educational process (and some outside it) can be comfortably fastened to a process that attains accountability. In a sense, the accountability process may act as a sort of glue for otherwise independent movements in education—needs assessment, performance objectives, participatory involvement in goal setting, management technology, program evaluation, and others. It is a versatile concept, as long as its conditions are heeded.

To date, reaction to applying accountability to education has been mixed. If remarks attributed to James Lade are correct, an idea passes through an evolutionary sequence of stages. The sequence goes: (a) indignant rejection, (b) reasoned objection, (c) qualified opposition, (d) tentative acceptance, (e) qualified endorsement, (f) judicious modification, (g) cautious adoption, (h) impassioned espousal, (i) proud parenthood, and (j) dogmatic propagation. Some—frequently legislators, school boards, and a few commercial hucksters—have seemingly short-circuited the evolutionary sequence and rapidly reached a point of impassioned espousal. Others—usually those individuals who fear or otherwise detest the idea of being held accountable to anyone for results attained—cluster at the starting gate, indignantly rejecting the thought.

Perhaps most interesting, however, serious observers of the movement appear to take a modified position, ranging from qualified opposition to tentative acceptance and qualified endorsement of the concept. None reject it as trivial; none acclaim it as a panacea. All appear to recognize educational accountability as a potentially powerful concept; and most soberly view its arrival as a natural culmination of many parallel activities, an intersection point captured in an idea—an idea whose time has come.

Under such conditions, the educational accountability movement, if it is appropriate to refer to it in that manner, can be expected to pick up a velocity of its own. At this point in history it is too young a movement to assess well its likely impact on American education. Many observers feel that its arrival is a necessary precondition to move public education to a new and higher level of performance, sophistication, and effectiveness.

This handbook is intended for those administrators and others who search for potential ways of improving their educational programs. As the letter of commission from the National Academy for School Executives states: "The essence of the assignment which we would like you to assume is to develop a concise and readable handbook which the superintendent of schools can utilize to acquaint himself with the broad dimensions of the problem of Accountability, with some of the alternatives which have been and are being developed in order to make school systems accountable, and the guidelines and pitfalls which he should observe in attempting to strive for greater accountability, and one or two case studies." All this material is to be packaged in a brief booklet "written in an eminently readable way and of short life value."

I tried.

What follows is my attempt to comply with the intent of the letter of commission. It is a presentation in two parts. The first part, "Toward Accountability," is intended to give you "the broad dimensions" and "some of the alternatives" connected with the accountability movement. The second part, "Developing an Educationally Accountable Program," is more direct, offering "guidelines and pitfalls" in the development of your own educational accountability program. You will find "us" talking to you directly in Part II. "We" find the nature of the subject matter of this section to be more conducive to a sort of dialogue approach. (I like to think of "we" as also being William Atkins and Esin Kaya, my co-authors in a forthcoming publication with the same title as Part II.) We hope we will not bother you by using this approach (or will we?).

There is, however, a loose end in this presentation—the matter of "one or two case studies." To be plain-spoken, I could not decide on which one or two studies to offer (much less do them any justice in the space provided). It might be possible to offer examples of performance contracts, plan-program-budget systems, management-by-objective projects, plus countless other translations of the accountability concept. The selection of any one of these could prompt the comment, "That's what he means by accountability." But as mentioned above, the concept is more malleable than one or two case studies. Instead, I substituted a model with many options, and, for purposes of teaching the application of a concept, that's what I mean by educational accountability programs. Further, a rather copious set of footnotes is offered. They are meant, in part, to provide references that might be useful to you in checking into your own favored brand of accountability. (Incidentally, the footnotes are placed at the back of the handbook so that they stay out of your way unless you really want to look further.)

Naturally, some gesture of acknowledgment is appropriate at this point toward those individuals who were particularly helpful in the completion of this project. These individuals divide roughly into three groups: First, the National Academy staff itself, with Richard Morrow (who had enough faith initially to contact me), Grant Venn (who approved of me), Bill Curtis (who spent many hours with me), and Dennis Peterson (who collected many materials for me). Next there was the input of a National Academy Conference on Accountability, sincerely one of the most exciting professional experiences I've had in the last few years, with its give-and-take dialogue between the "clinic professors" (in this case, Ray Bernabei, Bill Curtis, Stephen Knezevich, Leon Lessinger, Ruth Mancuso, Daryle Pelletier, and Jim Zaharis) and the learners (practicing school administrators from all over our country). Finally, there is an acknowledgment to

be made to the McCutchan Publishing Corporation, and especially to John McCutchan himself, for allowing me to reprint parts of my recent works, and to my co-authors, Bill Atkins and Esin Kaya, for allowing me to publish portions of our book, *Developing an Educationally Accountable Program.* The forbearance of my wife, Marilyn, and sons, Hugh and Scott, should be recognized too.

If this effort has been successful, I hope the spirit of the assignment will have been met: an evening's informative reading for you. *Bon voyage!*

Lesley H. Browder, Jr.

PART I

Toward Accountability

CHANGE, EDUCATION, AND THE SCHOOLMAN

Think about change. Realize that it is hard to develop any multifaceted project today—especially an educational program combining men, money, and materials—without having to acknowledge change. Omnipresent and accelerating, change by itself is recognized as an elemental force in the twentieth century. Alvin Toffler coined the term "future shock" to describe the impact of the force of change: a force that produces a "shattering stress and disorientation" on people, caused by subjecting them to "too much change in too short a time." [1] Warns Toffler, "Unless man quickly learns to control the rate of change . . . we are doomed to a massive adaptational breakdown." [2]

Whether or not Toffler's warnings and message are correct, he has much company.[3] B. F. Skinner's view of our civilization running away like a frightened horse, with its speed and panic increasing as it runs, may be overdrawn,[4] but there can be little doubt that acceleration of the change rate continues. Declares Sir Geoffrey Vickers, "The rate of change increases at an accelerating speed, without a corresponding acceleration in the rate at which further responses can be made; and this brings us nearer the threshold beyond which control is lost." [5] It is with these thoughts that we shift our attention to education.

For most of the history of mankind, education in one form or another has concerned itself with transmitting society's values, customs, and knowledge. The shadow of the past casts itself over the present and extends, indefinitely, into the future. Earlier life-style patterns could be taught with a sort of concrete assurance of their values to the future generation. To know and understand what one

would do in the future, one sought instruction from the past. Without the prominent visibility of change, older civilizations understood the role of education to be the instruction of the young on what had been done, said, and thought yesterday as their guide for tomorrow—a tomorrow that would be nearly identical to yesterday.

The visibility of change increased, however. With it, the concept of educational transmittal from the past began to alter. As inventions such as the printing press multiplied, as dreams of new social orders emerged, followed closely by massive social, political, economic, and technological revolutions, the thrust of education's concern changed. The promise that a knowledge of the past was a sufficient guide for the future could no longer be kept in the industrialized societies. Instead, educational transmission from the world of the present, because it had become distinctly different from the past, became for many a better guide. To be sure, transmission from earlier times will always be part of the educational process, but as a guide in coping with future problems it seems less useful, less appropriate, less clear in many matters. An impatient youth might say it is less relevant.

An ancient human behavior pattern suggests tendencies of men at different stages of life: older men look back to see where they came from, men in their prime look around to see where they are, and youth look ahead to see where they are going. Traditionally, a man's age sorts out and establishes the values of these behaviors. Never before, however, has there been such a disparity of outlooks. The man in his seventies knows a world that has gone, his son in his forties sees a world changing faster in some ways than he is able to respond, and the youngster in his early teens looks toward a world where the only certainty is that it will be different. The older man's wisdom and experience are less useful. The striving adult is a less certain guide as the shifting present crowds in on him. The youth, feeling a gap (a "generation gap"?) between the outlook and the ability of adults to help him, looks to his peers for comfort and guidance while marching toward an "unreal" twenty-first century. For most American youth, education in the form of the public school will be the major guide along the way.

But a paradox exists. On the one hand, the importance of education for the future is almost universally acknowledged. Some would even seem to paraphrase the Twenty-third Psalm to read, "Education is my shepherd. . . ." On the other hand, there exists a widespread conviction that education in its present form is not geared for the task. Notes Kenneth Clark, "I do agree strongly that the public school in America is presently unresponsive to contemporary educational needs." [6] More boldly, Toffler states, "What

passes for education today, even in our 'best' schools and colleges, is a hopeless anachronism." [7]

It might be said that change has pushed man faster and further than the institutions charged with his education can respond. It is toward making an institutional response to this condition that schoolmen are (or should be) concerned. How does the situation look to a school administrator?

Schoolmen, who handle the daily educational issues of our time, could reply, "Unsettling." The pressure for change, change here and now, dogs most administrators. A recent study of school superintendents, conducted by the American Association of School Administrators, suggests that simply responding to current change pressures can be nearly all-consuming. Keeping pace with current school costs alone is a leading problem, followed by pressures for responding to "demands for innovation, greater visibility, changes in values and behavior, and the revolution in school staff relations." [8] They find these pressures at once pointed, differing, and tending to converge on them. The study notes that increasing "attacks" on administrators is listed as the major reason for them to consider leaving their posts.[9]

One way or another, the local school administrator comes to understand that the development and coordination of education's response to the pressures for change rest largely on his shoulders. Many participants share in the local educational enterprise—teachers, students, board members, parents, taxpayers, minority groups, and others. All face the experiencing of "future shock" as change continues to accelerate. If massive adaptational breakdown is to be avoided, if the "threshold beyond which control is lost" is not to be crossed, then all share an obligation to develop a rate and quality of institutional response that will enable our youth to make the transition to the twenty-first century. But above all the others, the schoolman stands accountable.

ABOUT ACCOUNTABILITY

What is meant by *accountability*? A clear-cut definition of the term is complicated. For example, the term appears in the literature frequently with three senses.[10] First is its uncritical usage as synonymous with *responsibility.* A second usage is more critical, suggesting an obligation to explain or account for the disposition of tasks entrusted to an individual.[11] The third sense appears in the form of a partially defined concept peculiar to education—*educational accountability*. This usage conveys the notion that the schools and the educators who operate them be "held to account" (i.e., held

both responsible and answerable) for what they produce as "educational outcomes" (i.e., for what students learn).

Before education borrowed the term and inflated it with its own meanings, accountability expressed a relationship between the occupants of roles that control institutions, the "holders of power"—or stewards—and those who possess the formal power to displace them—reviewers.[12] The scope of this form of accountability includes everything—*everything*—those who hold formal powers of dismissal (the reviewers) find necessary in making their major decision. This decision is whether to continue or to withdraw their confidence in those office holders held to account (the stewards). From this role relationship, a simple definition of accountability follows: "the requirement on the occupant of a role, by those who authorize that role, to answer for the results of work expected from him in the role." [13]

ABOUT ACCOUNTABILITY AS A CONCEPT IN TRANSITION

But few things remain simple. Change, that tenacious force of our times, has been busy reshaping this simple idea. Brought into the definition now is the notion of *operationally specifying by degree* what tasks are to be accomplished by the steward—the person entrusted to execute the tasks—*prior* to his undertaking them.

A simple contrast between the more common form of the accountability process and its emerging form might be portrayed as follows:

> *Common Form.* Woodcutter Ames agrees to chop wood for Mr. Cotton for "a day's hire." Mr. Cotton assigns Ames his tasks, tells him what he wants done, and occasionally checks on Ames to see that the tasks are getting done and that a "fair day's work" effort is being made. Ames chops wood. Mr. Cotton pays Ames for his day's work. Ames is largely accountable only for his day's work and for following Mr. Cotton's instructions ("I did what you told me to do"). Mr. Cotton judges for himself whether the results represent a "fair day's work" as well as what he thinks he told Ames to do.
>
> *Emerging Form.* Woodcutter Brown also agrees to chop wood for Mr. Cotton. However, before Brown chops any wood, Mr. Cotton and he agree in writing how much is to be chopped, which field is to be cleared, approximately when the task is to be completed, and under what conditions the cleared field and chopped wood are to be found at the conclusion of the task. Different payment amounts are established for each of the tasks to be completed. Because in this case time is important to Mr. Cotton, a bonus payment is included if Brown can com-

plete the task ahead of schedule. By the same token, Brown also agrees to accept a reduced payment (a "discount") if it takes him longer than the agreed-upon time completion margins. He does his work without Mr. Cotton's supervision. When the task is completed, Brown renders an accounting of the results expected in the written agreement and those he actually achieved. Mr. Cotton checks his steward's account and pays according to their agreement for the results actually achieved.

Thus several things happen in the emerging form of accountability that are less common by degree in the more usual work arrangements:

1. There is first a carefully written agreement about what is expected to result from the steward's efforts, stated as objectives with measurable or evaluative criteria. It may or may not state what rewards or penalties will be awarded by the reviewer for the results achieved.

2. Because the description of what is expected is so closely written, the steward's obligations are more pointed. He knows what is expected and what is not expected. In accounting for his efforts, it is less easy to slough specifically stated tasks than the more normal, loosely stated ones. For example, in the more tightly stipulated task assignment "to remove *all* the trees, including their trunks, from the designated field," as opposed to the looser expectation "to give a fair day's work," there is little doubt what is expected of the steward. He accomplishes the task or he does not. If he does not, either he already knows the consequences (if rewards and penalties are stipulated in the agreement) or he is expected to provide a convincing explanation for his failure to complete the task if he desires to have his reviewer maintain confidence in his stewardship. But what is a "fair day's work," and is the reviewer more concerned about the possibility of being cheated by his steward's interpretation of it than in getting the tasks accomplished? In the emerging form of accountability, the focus is plainly on getting the tasks accomplished by the steward or finding out why they were not (with searching for alternative ways as an outgrowth of unacceptable performance).

3. Similarly, the agreement also obligates the reviewer by preestablishing the criteria of his expectations. He cannot whimsically change his expectations in midstream, add "surprise" responsibilities ("It won't take you a minute"), or otherwise escape his own responsibility to define what he expects to happen before the steward begins the task. This avoids such later familiar comments from the reviewer as: "That's not what

I want." "I thought you meant to do . . . ." "Why didn't you do this and that too?" "Who told you to do that?" "I don't understand what you did do." "You didn't understand what I want." "But it was *my* understanding that . . . ." And so on.

4. Because the tasks are both carefully designated and contain measurable criteria for evaluating the results, it is less necessary for the reviewer to be concerned with the supervision of the steward's work, only with verification of the steward's account.
5. By establishing in advance the criteria for what should result and how well, the reviewer's decision whether the steward's achievements are good enough or otherwise acceptable—the reviewer's level-of-confidence judgment—can be made at a more informed level. At least a yardstick familiar to both parties has been established and can be used to measure the steward's task performance (or its lack). At the same time, the steward knows that if he succeeds in achieving the task objectives, he can reasonably count on his reviewer's continued confidence in his stewardship.

Applied to education, this shift toward increasing the degree of accountability by spelling out beforehand (predetermining) objectives with evaluative criteria is similar. Teaching specific skills and concepts under stipulated conditions, ensuring that each student experiences a year's learning growth (or some designated growth) in terms of himself as an individual, or ensuring that a faculty as a team accomplishes measurable objectives toward some larger goals (philosophical or otherwise) may all be part of the predetermined expectations for educational achievement—the elements of objectives that move a school district closer toward realizing its educational goals.

Consider, for example, the old social studies objective "to understand and appreciate the dignity and brotherhood of man." (Such objectives fill curriculum guides. They stand more as pious, if vague, hopes than as something someone could do something about or otherwise account for a student's progress toward realization.) What does it mean? How do you know when it is accomplished or even if you are on the right path? When does a learner indicate he "understands" or "appreciates"? All these questions and many others go unanswered until we ask the steward and reviewer to come to some agreement about who does what, under what conditions and using what criteria, to determine achievement. Suppose instead that the steward and reviewer agree they are serious about pursuing the above objective (i.e., it is not just window dressing). They might stipulate that:

> The learner demonstrates the degree of his understanding and appreciation of the dignity and brotherhood of man when he accepts children of all ethnic backgrounds in the classroom or on the playground by showing his willingness to (a) include all children in games and activities, (b) choose a child for leadership regardless of ethnic group, (c) work together with all children in study groups, and (d) choose children for personal friends from any group (as observed by the teacher).

Whatever its failings (and many may be found, depending on one's viewpoint), such an expression comes closer by degree to supplying a fuller meaning and a basis for acting or diagnosing problems than the old objective. True, the vaguely stated original can more easily gather consensus for approval by many parties, with each party being spared the task of having to spell out precisely what he means, thereby reducing the likelihood of conflicting with someone else's notion of "dignity" and "botherhood." The result, however, is an objective that is hollow: neither the steward nor the receiver has a handle to grab that lifts the objective out of the murk of meaninglessness. But further discussion about forms of *educational* accountability will come later.

Because the emerging form of accountability lends itself so readily to forms of contract negotiation, particularly in the public sector, it seems appropriate to coin the phrase "negotiable accountability." A definition of negotiable accountability might be: the requirement on the occupant of a role, as determined by a negotiated contract (defining assignable, measurable units of responsibility to be fulfilled under certain conditions and within certain constraints), to answer for the specified results of work expected from him in the role in return for specified benefits accorded by results.

ABOUT EDUCATION AND ACCOUNTABILITY

What has caused education to court accountability? A thorough explanation is beyond our intentions. However, it seems possible to point to two broad sources of support for attempting to link education with a more virile form of accountability. First, change pressures of our times—political, social, and economic change pressures—are demanding responsiveness to perceived problems. American education has its share of "perceived problems." Second, advances (usually technological in form), within education itself as well as outside it, have developed to a point where applications of emerging accountability patterns appear feasible, at least worthy of trying in the absence of other visible measures of success or suitable explanations for what is happening.

An analysis of the pressures of our times should not require much elaboration. Is it necessary to belabor, for example, the message of our news media (telling it like it is, we are told) about the current happenings in American education? From the daily collage of recitations, even a casual observer is likely to get an impression that there are degrees of discontent with public education in nearly all communities, whether the upset parties be minority groups, students, parents, taxpayers, boards of education, politicians, social reformers, and/or school administrators.[14]

In sum, the pressures from this discontent create a climate of opinion for change within which the notion of accountability has strong appeal. As Stephen Barro phrases it, "Under the accountability banner, these diverse programs for educational reform coalesce and reinforce one another, each gaining strength and all, in turn, strengthening already powerful pressures for educational change."[15]

Out of these pressures of our times, a reform-minded line of reasoning is directing the emerging patterns of accountability into education. The roots of this effort can be traced to Washington as a sort of spillover and fallout from the launching of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) and the continuing federal efforts since in the field of compensatory education. Simply expressed, this reasoning holds that:[16]

1. The educational evaluation of the schools and their programs is important—very important (in fact, the belief holds that schools should be monitored regularly with the results critically assessed and made public knowledge).
2. A similar close reporting should be made on the cost inputs of educational programs and their resulting benefits as derived in measurable cost-effectiveness terms.
3. An old educational cliché should be put to the test, with the schools being held responsible for devising programs that "meet the needs" (operationally defined) of *all* students (from the most to the least endowed).
4. The people whose children are being educated in the schools should have a closer partnership and form of participation in this matter, a partnership with a hand not far from the controls.

This line of reasoning received its most forceful public expression to date in President Richard Nixon's March 3, 1970, "Message on Education Reform," which opens with the flat statement, "American education is in urgent need of reform." A few excerpts from this message illustrate the above points:

> What makes a good school? The old answer was a school that maintained high standards of plant and equipment, that had a reasonable number of children per classroom, whose teachers had good college and often graduate training, that kept up to date with new curriculum developments and was alert to new techniques of instruction. This was a fair enough definition so long as it was assumed that there was a direct connection between these school characteristics and the actual amount of learning that takes place in a school.
>
> Years of educational research, culminating in the Equal Educational Opportunity Survey of 1966, have, however, demonstrated that this direct, uncomplicated relationship does not exist.
>
> Apart from the general public interest in providing teachers an honorable and well-paid professional career, there is only one important question to be asked about education: What do the children learn?
>
> Unfortunately, it is simply not possible to make any confident deduction from school characteristics as to what will be happening to the children in any particular school. . . . One conclusion [however] is inescapable: We do not yet have equal educational opportunity in America.
>
> To achieve this . . . reform it will be necessary to develop broader and more sensitive measurements of learning than we now have . . . new measurements of educational output. . . .
>
> From these considerations, we derive another new concept: accountability. School administrators and school teachers alike are responsible for their performance, and it is in their interest as well as in the interests of their pupils that they be held accountable. Success should be measured not by some fixed national norm, but rather by the results achieved in relation to the actual situation of the particular school and the particular set of pupils.[17]

* * *

In total, from the pressures of the times in which we live, education has found the emerging patterns of accountability alluring. At the same time, the burgeoning new technologies provide underpinnings for the application of accountability. Our source of this stream can also be traced back to Washington, D.C. Faced with the tasks of solving so many problems stemming from national defense in World War II and the subsequent cold war race for increased armament capabilities and space ventures, a series of conceptual frameworks was necessary to permit many different disciplines to work together. This series of frameworks developed around the notion of "systems."

A system, simply defined, is "a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes."[18] While that definition is too skeletal to offer much sustenance for initial understanding, it does express the common relationship between

the more than forty terms used to express forms of its use. At the same time, its parallel to the accountability definition should be unmistakable.

In general, these forms of the systems concept seek to explain "relationships between objects" in a manner that permits close scrutiny of the objects as well as how they fit together in a whole system or part of it. Usually this explication is done by building and analyzing abstract models of the empirical world representing the "necessary and sufficient" relationships of the items being considered. For Anatol Rapoport, it means that "general systems theory subsumes an outlook or a methodology rather than theory in the sense ascribed to this term in science." [19]

Thus the systems concept performs an integrative function in its application and appears able to fuse together for several purposes the contributions of many disciplines that would otherwise be strange bedfellows. The impact of these advances (under the systems banner) on the school administrator, operating as a generalist in the social-behavioral science milieu of an educational, organizational, and administrative world, is powerful: "It can be used to counter the trend toward myopic fractionalization of knowledge that renders the generalist obsolete." [20]

Expressions of the systems concept have assumed many forms. In the social sciences alone, multiple system conceptualizations have emerged. For example, David Easton developed a framework for analyzing political systems,[21] the field of economics generated a whole series of systems analyses (including input-output analysis, econometric models, and benefit-cost analysis),[22] sociology contributed theories of social systems through the writings of Talcott Parsons and others.[23] Even management found uses for analytical system techniques, spawning operations research (OR), management information systems (MIS), program evaluation and review techniques (PERT), critical-path method (CPM), cost-effectiveness analysis (differing from the "economic" focus of benefit-cost analysis by accounting for a variety of noneconomic objectives also), and plan-program-budget systems (PPBS).[24] Explication of each of these approaches falls beyond the scope of efforts here. Their significance to us lies in the fact that they provide a larger variety of ways to view problems, alternative ways that are logical, systematic, comprehensive, and above all, rational.

At its best, systems analysis represents an approach through rational technology that seeks to clarify what is known, to isolate what is unknown, to stimulate future behavior, to handle fantastically complex interrelationships, and when different combinations of inputs

are introduced, to yield insights into the likelihood of future outcomes from alternative approaches. As Harry Hartley summarized it:

> It enables one to raise probing questions in a universal language. By cutting across academic fields of specialization with general systems theory, much needed inter-disciplinary dialogue on problems, including those pertaining to schools, is encouraged. Systematic thinking is logical thinking. By expanding the options and reducing uncertainties, the systems analyst increases the probability in his favor. The range of potential application . . . is nearly unlimited. . . . Its major virtue is the enhancement of human judgment.[25]

Any technology that enhances human judgment is bound to be a powerful tool in the planning, negotiating, and rendering of an account.

While new applications of systems concepts were evolving, the field of education was at the same time developing a thrust vital to any consideration of accounting for educational performance, namely, "behavioral objectives." Receiving a major impetus from the scholarly work of Benjamin Bloom and others in the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* handbooks[26] and a popularized form of application in Robert Mager's *Preparing Instructional Objectives,*[27] the behavioral objective movement has made steady forward progress.

Behavioral objectivists are concerned with educational measurement and hold that, if a child learns, his behavior will change. This changed behavior, in turn, is possible to observe or otherwise measure through various means. Thus, if the child's behavior changes as he learns, it makes sense to develop educational goals and objectives in forms of the kinds of learner behaviors desired. It then follows that the instructional program may be geared to developing these desired behavior changes.

While the behavioral objectivists were studying changes in learner outcomes and shifts in behavior, the educational field was becoming increasingly receptive to this kind of thinking. Jerome Bruner's *Process of Education*[28] managed to capture the attention of practicing schoolmen while public concerns about public education, stemming from Sputnik, Rickover, Conant, and others, helped support an unprecedented era of innovation and change in elementary and secondary education. Many of these changes (e.g., continuous progress education, nongraded instruction, team teaching, individually prescribed instruction, computer-assisted instruction, etc.) depend on knowing with some precision where the student is in his learning.[29] The methodolgy of drafting behavioral objectives aids this movement where teachers attempt to assess student needs and prescribe objectives that are appropriate (i.e., that reflect

considerations of the nature and needs of the learner, his society, and the content to be learned).

From behavioral definitions of learner outcomes and increasing demands from teacher groups for greater rights in determining educational decisions, it is but a short step to one more conclusion: the responsibility for moving the learner from a state in which he cannot perform a desired behavior to one in which he can belongs to the teacher. The teacher is accountable for the learning outcomes of the student.[30]

Although the systems technologists and the behavioral objectivists started their reform movements separately, it was, as Erick Lindman states, "inevitable that they should discover each other and find they had much in common."[31] Combined with the pressure of the times, the notion that accountability could and should be more rigorously applied to education has gained currency. Why should persons employed by the public to provide a service (and given considerable latitude in determining how and under what conditions that service will be rendered) be exempt from standing to account for the results of that service?

It is not likely that the premise of this argument will be seriously (or at least openly) challenged. The problem will lie in the manner of making accountability operational. The issue of "who is accountable for what to whom" in education is complex but, argue the change pressures of the times, necessary and, suggest the new technologies, possible.

TOWARD DEVELOPING ACCOUNTABILITY IN EDUCATION

A variety of approaches, singly or employed with others, have been proposed to make the schools more accountable. Some broad approaches may be noted.[32]

Developing Greater Management Sophistication Among Educators

This approach depends upon acquainting educators generally (and administrators specifically) with the developments in the systems-based technologies, particularly those that stress management control. Presumably, the schools could be made more accountable by making more critical and effective uses of their resources through employing these technologies (e.g., PPBS, PERT). In the foreword of a new book on educational project management, for example, an official of the U.S. Office of Education contends that

demands for accountability can be helpfully accommodated with "the development of management sophistication among educators":

> Although the necessity for competent management is part of the conventional wisdom of business and industry, the concept of educator as manager . . . is just being accepted—gingerly. Although educators . . . may indeed have "functioned" as managers—manipulating resources and coping with multiple demands to meet certain ends—the tools devised by managers in other fields have not been available to them, nor has the relevance of such tools been immediately apparent.[33]

James observed, "More recently a newer priesthood of economists and political scientists has joined the engineers in advising government about improving schools, and schoolmen now have a new catechism to learn."[34] This catechism has come a long way, baby! At least that is what the new priesthood believes.

Using Educational Program Auditing

This device stems from traditional public fears that they are not being given the full truth about the quality of their children's education. To help bridge this "credibility gap" and keep the schools honest in their labors, an educational program auditor (EPA) is employed. This person "audits" or otherwise critically evaluates specified portions of the school program (from specifically designated programs to building-level programs or even to the total district program). Although there are several obvious differences between the two roles, the EPA acts somewhat similarly to the role performed by a certified public accountant: both represent an independent external quality-control agency. Kruger notes:

> The Educational Program Auditor does not operate the evaluation system, as the fiscal auditor does not operate the accounting system—yet both use their expertise, objectivity, and perspective to improve the quality of these performance-control systems, and thus indirectly influence the quality of overall program design and management without diluting the responsibility or authority of program management personnel.[35]

While variations may be expected (e.g., one variation is the audit committee, composed of parents, teachers, students, community-at-large representatives, and administrators who work with the technical audit personnel to assure that they give sufficient attention to the "auditing" of program areas of particular concern to their individual interests), the general form for the movement and use of EPA's will probably come from Washington along the lines represented in internally circulating memoranda.[36]

Developing and Implementing Defined Levels of Performance Expectations

The development of defined performance expectations is bound to be the most difficult, and probably the most significant, feature of the accountability movement. As one administrator remarked, "Getting any six people to agree on general things in education, let alone behavioral objectives, is god-awful." Almost fifteen years ago, Paul Woodring raised a powerful set of questions: Should the schools be responsible for the child's intellectual development only, or should they be responsible for his social, moral, religious, vocational, physical, and emotional development, as well as for his recreation? If the schools are to be responsible for everything, is everything of equal importance, and if not, what is the order of priority—what comes first?[37] Clear answers to these questions have never been resolved in most communities, and are likely never to get resolved. Accordingly, specific behavioral objectives will probably continue to be worked out by the staff and restricted to the academic areas in their application.

A more clearly defined general consensus on what the schools should be accomplishing will be necessary, however, if accounts are to be rendered. Arriving at such a consensus is no easy task. One superintendent, describing his lack of success at building a working consensus in his community, noted, "There's a lack of good will. That's the problem. They come on as members of a political party to fight, and they fight."[38]

Given the politicization of efforts to define performance expectations, the task may be too difficult for many public schools (but perhaps not for private schools). This difficulty makes it attractive to use a piecemeal approach to defining expectations where consensus can be obtained, trading off other expectations, and providing alternative forms of schooling for meeting differing forms of expectations. Even this approach is difficult. Writes a parent to a friend:

> Mr. C [the principal] in his chat did mention that he would like our school to offer a choice in "styles of teaching" with the traditional type on the one hand and the more experimental on the other—where the children learn by "inquiry." I didn't argue with him at the time, but why must they be mutually exclusive? I don't see why a good teacher can't use many approaches to learning in her classroom. I don't see why in one room all the children must rigidly sit at their desks all working on the same page in their workbook where in another they crawl around the room searching for knowledge, with the teacher handing a lantern as they crawl by. Billy [son] is lukewarm about school this year. This teacher is an older woman, nice, if uninspired—a traditional type if we must apply a label.

> Joe [husband] went to visit on parents night and was not impressed with the reading program, so we started Billy at home. . . . Almost miraculously he began reading with competence.[39]

Many people do have expectations for their schools, are seldom neutral in their educational outlooks, and feel compelled to act if the schools cannot meet their expectations.

The task is to form a general consensus of the major objectives spelled out to a point where progress toward them can be assessed with meaning. Though difficult, it should not be impossible to develop some graduated acceptance of a goal such as "reading with competence," behaviorally defined.

Perhaps the use of the Delphi Technique would be helpful in probing and developing such a consensus within a community school. Such a technique, originally used solely to get expert consensus on future technological breakthroughs in the defense industry, operates by asking selected persons to render certain forecasts (if getting best-judgment expert consensus on the likelihood of future events is your goal) or to offer particular sets of opinion (if getting community or group consensus on goals, objectives, and their priority is your aim), doing so individually (questionnaire style) and without face-to-face consultation. The compiled results of this survey are then returned to each participant with a request that he review the collective results, change his own estimates if he desires, or explain why he happens to fall outside the majority range of expression if such is the case. This process may be repeated two or three times with an eventual emergence of some central consensus on all issues. The appeal of the Delphi Technique to rationality and anonymity allows for the convergence of a majority opinion as well as for the identification of an articulated minority view without the usual intense heat of argument or the undue influencing of opinion by certain influential persons from whom others take their response cues.[40]

Developing a consensus on defined levels of expectations is difficult; implementation also promises to be so. The school system is conventionally held accountable by the school board primarily for "staff performance" (i.e., the staff is held responsible in a generalized sense for knowing and doing things supposed to help educate the student). The entire system of teacher certification, school accrediting procedures, and similar structures buttress this generalized assessment of staff performance. This "system" is further reinforced by the granting of a form of lifetime appointment —tenure—nearly automatically or by length of undisputed service within a reward structure based on the "unified salary schedule," with emphasis on length of service and graduate credits collected as the

only significant variables. Accountability, however, shifts the focus to "pupil (rather than staff) performance"; the emphasis is placed on results, or producing specified levels of student accomplishment. A commonly imagined way to implement this approach is the use of "incentive pay" for teachers. Plans for vertical differentiated staffing patterns linked with salaries that are based on levels of student achievement as well as staff performance may fit this pattern.[41]

Another approach, largely conceived by Leon Lessinger and focused directly upon specified achievement test gains of students, is to use "performance contracting." Usually an outside independent agency or firm contracts with the school board to achieve specified levels of student achievement and to be paid in accordance with the measure of success obtained. The most publicized experiment to date is the one in Texarkana. By fall 1970, the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) had undertaken the funding direction of eighteen such experiments involving six educational technology companies.[42] How successful this approach will be is too early to conclude. The OEO has since abandoned further experimentation with performance contracting, however.

Even more promising, perhaps, is "internal performance contracting," another variation of accountability implementation. Under this plan, local teacher teams submit bids to the board of education. Specifications include the instructional objectives, the targeted students, the time period, and the educational costs (i.e., salaries, overhead, materials, and subcontracting costs for teacher aides from the community or special consultants as needed). The degree of accountability is negotiated by representatives of the local teacher association. The bid awards are regular contracts for specified results. Plan-program-budget systems and project management techniques work neatly into this approach. Interestingly, the various contracted teacher teams may—or may not—contract for administrative services from their own building principal and other central office personnel. Under a grant from the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA), the Mesa (Arizona) Public Schools are attempting such a plan. It is noted:

> The value of the internal educational performance contract is that it is regulated by teachers through their own professional organization. Governance through peer regulation and evaluation is meshed with the real reward structure. This, in turn, is rooted firmly in client growth. Such an approach may unite accountability and governance at the operational level.[43]

Internal performance contracting appears, on the surface, to be ripe with exciting possibilities.

Quickening Institutional Responsiveness Through Increased Local Participation and Semi-Autonomy

This avenue increases accountability by removing the major locus of power from the usually more centralized distant sources to the various participants on the scene. Increasing local participation makes the schools more responsive by shared decision-making powers between school authorities and the people whose lives are touched by the school. In a gross sense, it is accountability through political exercise. By concomitantly decentralizing the administrative structure, the local administrator is usually more "in harmony" (e.g., if it is a black neighborhood, the administrator is black) with the setting of the neighborhood school and, accordingly, beholden to it. His tenure in office depends upon it.[44]

The source of this power lies generally in the informal structure of the local community itself. As a recent publication (subtitled "A Parent's Action Handbook on How To Fight the System") suggests, the ways in which local groups can bring pressure to bear on their schools are plentiful (if somewhat painful to those targeted for such action).[45]

At the same time, if local pressure is not sufficient, pressure for increased participation is also coming from Washington. In an October 1970 memorandum sent to all chief state school officers, then Acting Educational Commissioner E. T. Bell pressed the issue of parental involvement in ESEA Title I projects. Specifically, the local educational agency is required to state how its parent councils:

a. Provide suggestions on improving projects or programs in operation;
b. Voice complaints about projects or programs and make recommendations for their improvement;
c. Participate in appraisals of the program; and
d. Promote the involvement of parents in the educational services provided under ESEA Title I.[46]

Further, a description is mandated of the means by which the local people have an opportunity to inspect the Title I application and present their views prior to its submission. Reports must also be filed stating how complaints of parent councils on Title I projects have been handled. Such activities ought certainly to encourage the responsiveness of the accountability that comes through political exercise.

Appealing to an Alternative Form of Education

Another means of accountability is based on a sort of "consumer's choice" logic. Through the use of "educational vouchers," a parent can pay for the schooling of his choice, provided there is

a selection of schools available and the parent is sufficiently dissatisfied with the educational fare at the local public school. Presumably, through competing froms of publicly financed educational systems (public and semiprivate), the parent can hold schools accountable by exercising alternative choices. While some individuals view the voucher plan as a form of accountability, it falls outside the scope of the emerging accountability patterns mentioned earlier. While alternative forms of education have special appeals of their own, it is not apparent what particular qualities they possess that increase accountability as the concept is used here.[47]

* * *

In brief, several avenues to increased accountability seem available, taken singly or in concert with others. How successful any or all of these approaches might be probably will have to be determined in measures of degree, a measurement difficult to obtain in instances of heretofore undefined or loosely held objectives.

Putting togther all the elements for rendering a better account, what picture emerges? A picture of the full-blown pattern emerges in another U.S. Office of Education memorandum (with Technical Assistance Coordinator Stanley Kruger's name affixed at the end). According to the memo, the Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers distributed it "in an effort to promote the implementation of accountability in DPSC programs to a greater extent than has been accomplished heretofore." Twelve factors are "identified as being critical to the process":[48]

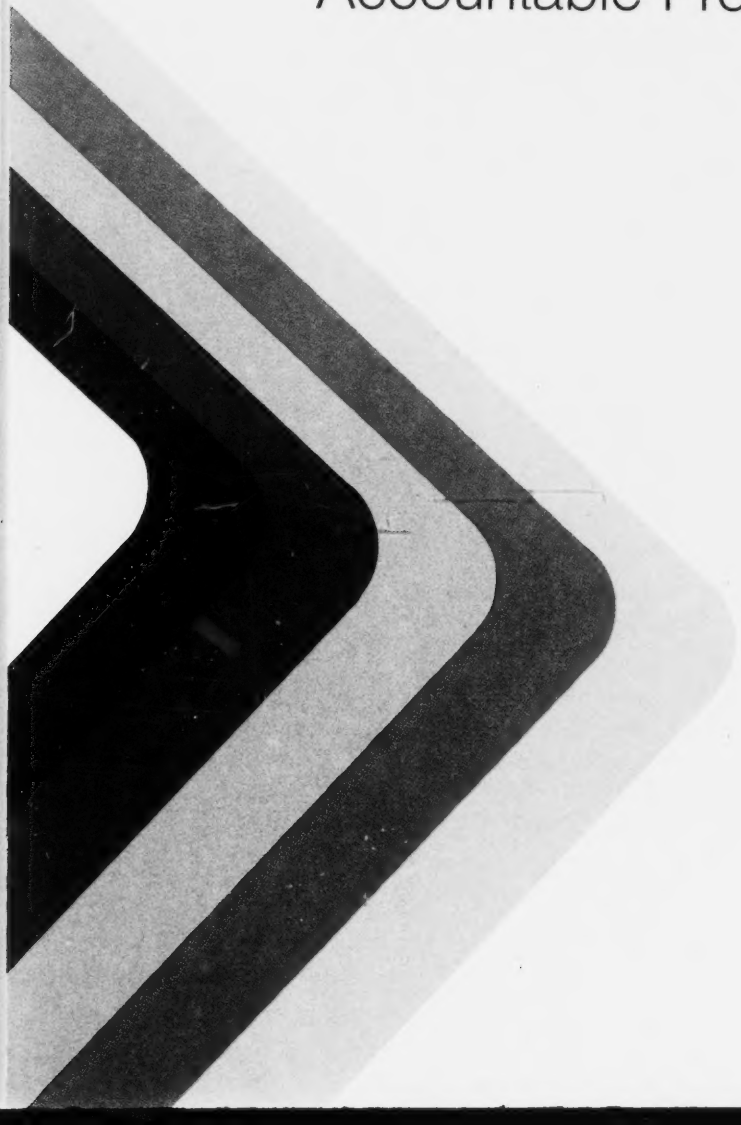
1. *Community involvement:* utilizing members of concerned community groups in appropriate phases of program activity in order to facilitate program access to community resources; community understanding of the program's objectives, procedures, and accomplishments; and the discharge of program responsibilities to relevant community client, service, and support groups.
2. *Technical assistance:* providing adequate resources in program planning, implementation, operation, and evaluation by drawing upon community, business, industrial, labor, educational, scientific, artistic, social/welfare, and governmental agencies for expertise and services necessary for effective operations.
3. *Needs assessment:* identifying target-group and situational factors essential to the planning of a relevant program of action.
4. *Change strategies:* developing effective strategies for systematic change in the educational enterprise and incorporating the strategies into program operations.

5. *Management systems:* adapting the systems approach—through such techniques as MBO, PPBS, PERT, and CPM—to educational program management at the local, state, and federal levels.
6. *Performance objectives:* specifying program objectives in a comprehensive, precise manner that indicates measures and means for assessing the degree of attainment of predetermined standards.
7. *Performance budgeting:* allocating fiscal resources in accordance with program objectives to be realized, rather than by objects or functions to be supported.
8. *Performance contracting:* arranging for technical assistance in program operations through internal or external contracts that condition compensation upon the accomplishment of specified performance objectives.
9. *Staff development:* determining the nature and extent of staff development needed for the successful implementation of the accountability concept at the local, state, and federal levels, and the design and conduct of indicated development activities.
10. *Comprehensive evaluation:* establishing systems of performance control based on the continuous assessment of the program's operational and management processes and resultant products.
11. *Cost-effectiveness:* analyzing unit results obtained in relation to unit resources consumed under alternative approaches to program operation as a determinant in continued program planning.
12. *Program auditing:* setting up a performance control system based on external reviews conducted by qualified outside technical assistance, designed to verify the results of the evaluation of an educational program and to assess the appropriateness of program operation and management.

The current range of ideas, practices, and definitions of educational accountability is broad and diverse in rigorousness,[49] but the change pressures of our times and the advances of technology should be enough to ensure the continuation of the search for new ways of implementation. Caught in this web of circumstance is the ubiquitous school administrator. His role, like the roles of other participants in the educational enterprise, is likely to experience constant redefinition over time, particularly as education seeks to respond to change.

PART II

Developing an Educationally Accountable Program



CONSIDERING SOME IMPERATIVES FOR PROGRAM DESIGN

Suppose you—*you*—want to develop an educationally accountable program. What advice can we offer?

Probably our advice should be offered as a series of caveats expressed as "imperatives." The literature holds a variety of such imperatives. Lopez warns that your program must (a) pay attention to communicating with all parties, (b) have an organizational philosophy or plan of action that has the allegiance of everyone, (c) be based on ethical principles and policies that work, (d) be specific about its purpose, (e) improve the performance of all persons involved, (f) be sensitive to human needs, and (g) have all persons who are touched by your program participate in its development from start through finish.[1]

Mazur joins Lopez in pointing out program pitfalls. You should avoid (a) making unrealistic administrative demands, (b) forcing accountability programs on unwilling and uncomprehending staffs, (c) perceiving accountability as an end rather than a means, (d) moving forward with a shallow understanding of accountability policy and procedures, (e) having too great expectations from minimal procedures and small resources, and (f) placing too much faith in the reliability of accountability measures (the "criterion problem").[2]

Mazur's own positive imperatives are brief: one must have a trained staff and the opportunity to employ accountability procedures, and must possess the capability for generating information appropriate to planning and development.[3]

Cunningham, writing about decentralization and community control, offers the following imperatives for program design: (a)

responsiveness to the participation impulse in people, (b) movement toward demonstrably improved education, (c) recognition of the equality of opportunity mandate, (d) accommodation of lay-professional antagonisms, (e) financial feasibility, and (f) politically attainable goals.[4]

Without attempting to exhaust imperative listings, it might not be stretching too much to conclude there are nearly as many listings as authors—take your pick. At the same time, the listings are similar in many respects. It is also unfair merely to summarize imperatives like a grocery list and forego the closely written explanations with which these authors buttress their points. Our purpose, however, is to alert the reader that there are multiple and differing caveat emptor signs dotting the landscape, not to lead him by the hand to each one.[5]

What advice is the reader then to follow? His best advice is likely to come from his own judgment (seasoned, of course, by IBM's famous imperative, "Think"), but he is entitled to know what *we* think is critical in designing an accountability program under today's general conditions. Recall that accountability is a versatile concept; as long as its conditions are heeded, it can be attached to a number of currently popular educational programs as well as any of the favored old ones. The advice we bestow upon our reader is given with an expectation that a sizable commitment to accountability is being contemplated. All this advice giving looks ridiculous if you merely intend to apply "a little accountability" to Miss Johnson's third-grade Bluebird group. With full awareness that our judgment is equally open to question, here are some hard-to-separate, interrelated features we feel to be critical in developing an educationally accountable program.[6]

One: The Program Must Have Knowledgeable Designers

Field experience with the birth of new programs has demonstrated repeatedly that a certain level of knowledgeability and awareness on the part of program designers is necessary. How to specify when the program designer possesses the requisite range of information, awareness, and understanding to produce an appropriate program design is beyond our ability. Under varying circumstances, for example, a sick child may critically need the knowledge and skill of a highly trained team of surgeons, or a country doctor making do, or even a desperate mother with a copy of *Dr. Spock* in hand. The level of knowledge necessary in each circumstance is determined by whether the child gets well, realizing that he could

die or get better with or without the intervention of the would-be healers.

Chances of success appear greater when persons designing a new program have carefully considered critical variables in the proposed program's range and scope, have studied the program from start to finish, have thought deeply enough to anticipate problems before they arise, and are willing to develop the program around some theoretical design. This requires an individual who can assess needs and develop change strategies; who knows what technical assistance is available, as well as alternative management systems; who can exercise that rarest of commodities, good judgment, and know whether it is all workable. Our guess is that not every administrator thinks he can do these things or is comfortable at the thought of learning how. Our advice, however, is that he *ought* to possess knowledge and skill in this area—it is one of the ways the pressures for change are redefining his role. Too often educational programs have been slapped together in a manner not too unlike a child putting together a complex toy model without bothering to read the directions. The nature of the accountability process requires more than a read-and-apply level of understanding.

Figuring most of our readers to be in a position somewhat akin to the country doctor who has to make do locally with what he has on hand, we suggest that accountability programs are somewhat similar to the range of operations the country doctor might attempt, from the simple to the most complex, but always with a prerequisite level of knowledge and skill. In brief, the designer should have a fair notion of what he is doing before he starts. Toward this end, this booklet attempts to move at the most basic levels. An administrative tendency to muddle through is not good enough.[7]

Two: The Program Must Lead to Improved Education

There is little point in designing an educationally accountable program unless it leads to real improvement. This statement is far easier to write than to do; the practitioner on the scene is likely to feel himself stymied at times. For example, because local educational programs are characteristically "loose" in that few attempt to reach behavioral objectives or specify learning outcomes, it may be difficult to locate where your program starts. Rather like playing basketball when the score is kept only occasionally: it may be hard to know whether your game plan is an improvement over what happened previously. Once accountability has been put into effect, you should at least be able to know the score and whether you are

getting better or worse results within the framework of your program.

A greater problem, however, is establishing a clear notion of where improvement is (or should be) directed. There are frequently differences of opinion about what needs to be "improved." Some educators are pleased if the student learns only to read and write; others want more. Deciding specifically what is to be improved and whether you are in fact improving on it is difficult but necessary if you intend to operate an accountability program. Without an operationally defined set of objectives, you have neither a clear idea of where you are going nor an awareness of when you have arrived or succeeded with your program.

There is a further closely related problem—call it a political reality. In our pluralistic society, clear resolution of goals and objectives has always been elusive, and goal declarations have generally been couched in terms of suggestive vagueness. Certainty of success, or of failure, has been correspondingly difficult to identify. Once objectives are specified and measurement of their accomplishment taken, accountability makes it a political necessity and an educational imperative that the program demonstrate improvement (or, at least, nothing less than a status-quo-ante-plan implementation). Wedded as our society is to the concepts of progress and success, does any practitioner really feel he can ignore this imperative? That is, because of the greater visibility of results obtained and the near certainty that some people will be praised and others not (no matter how hard you desire to avoid it), the practitioner should be fairly certain that the program leads to improvement (i.e., is "doomed to success"). Failing educational experiments, especially where children are concerned, have never been popular, even when the results have not been visible. Like old soldiers, they just fade away. But it is doubtful that failing programs producing highly visible results will be allowed to pass uncensured.

Three: The Program Must Recognize and Accommodate Diverse Forms of Participation

Because education, especially *public* education, is everybody's business and because in democratic societies everyone is expected to have a voice (from small peeps to large howls) in the operation of the commonweal, any accountability design should attempt to recognize and accommodate diverse forms of participation in its development. As Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell express it, "Whether he [the administrator] wishes to maintain or to alter the goals and operation of his school, he must begin by taking into account the relation between the structure of expectations of the school and the

structure of values in the community."[8] Today, resolution of this issue of what people want their schools to be, their expectations, has become a major dilemma for many administrators.

Schoolmen experience a daily existence made to order for aspirin ads, full of headaches, fevers, and mounting tensions. Pressures from the public, teachers, students, organized staff unions, vocal minority groups, and boards of education can be enormous. A leading contributor to these pressures is the touchy issue of expectations.

Not so long ago, the expectations held by boards of education, their constituents, and school administrators seemed clearer. Their values were more closely attuned. Schoolmen were expected to account for peace and order in the school community, maintaining and enforcing commonly accepted codes and policies, advancing certain educational "essentials" in the school program, and an annual budget that increased only imperceptibly. Achievement of these standards was assumed, and a degree of mutually shared confidence prevailed among boards, administrators, and the dominant community groups. In this climate an aura of semi-autonomy was permitted administrators.

But harmony between expectations and attainment is increasingly rare. Commonly shared values seem fewer in number. The calmer waters of a relatively more stable era are rippled by the stirrings of newly articulate groups—teachers, students, and community minority groups. The advent of power politics and adversary forms of negotiation makes agreement on values, goals, and objectives more elusive, more diffuse. Otherwise capable schoolmen find themselves unable to stand to account, that is, to meet the expectations of task obligations swollen far beyond the means of *any* administrator expected to cope with them. Frequently situations arise in which the various participants expect "more" without concern for how far their expectations could be met by *any* program or administrator.

In brief, we are suggesting that the designer seek to answer the pressure for participation. He should develop a strategy to clarify and resolve the diffuseness of the community's expectations for its schools, accommodating, where possible, the diversity of participants and their interests. Above all, however, he needs to obtain clarification of the school program objectives. A supporting group consensus on behaviorally defined program objectives, if indeed possible, promises to be the most difficult variable in developing a program. As Etzioni concludes, "Unless more and better consensus building—in matters of substance, structure, and procedure—is added to more informed and less fragmented decision

making, the schools—especially the public ones—will be increasingly more out of step with a rapidly changing society and will suffer the battering that ossified institutions take on stormy days." [9]

Four: The Program Must Train Personnel Before and During Implementation

It should not be necessary to advise administrators to train personnel before and during implementation of any plans likely to require them to change their manner of operation. Past experience, however, suggests otherwise. Laments Hapgood about some reverses experienced in the new American "open classroom" movement, we cannot succeed in developing the open classroom "without fully understanding the principle on which it is based, without going through the necessary process of preparation, and without developing supportive methods to foster it." [10] Her illustration of the American pattern of program initiation is not unfamiliar: a teacher (or administrator), excited by a quick workshop or even a book, returns to work and attempts to create an instant open classroom, abandoning the concept as "impractical" as soon as he finds it difficult to cope with the problems that arise. We simply tend to give training short shrift, yielding an "I'm a professional, just let me alone to teach" attitude that assumes each person involved knows (in some mysterious way) exactly what to do. We should remind ourselves that it took the English years to develop a few successful open classroom programs, with heavy reliance on weekend in-service courses.

To illustrate further, contrast the complex professional task of educating children with that of winning professional football games (with the easily understood goal of gaining more points than your opponent). How many veteran professional football teams begin a new season after an orientation day or two to draw equipment? How many teams—even the poorest—fail to assess minutely what they did last week at each position, man for man and objective by objective? How often do they not scout and diagnose equally critically for their next performance to determine their opponents' various strengths and weaknesses? Do they not attempt to adjust and prescribe a game plan that produces the necessary results and, if they find under field conditions that their plan needs further adjusting, act accordingly? How many hours and days of preparation for coaches and players go into a single two- or three-hour performance, with the simple overriding goal to achieve a better result than their resisting opponents? How long is a team of players and coaches permitted to fail at this task—a task that statistically

guarantees that some will lose—before its personnel are assessed for the results produced and held to account?

The contrast is deliberately overdrawn, and we are not suggesting that educators ape professional football's manner of operation. We are, however, advising that, before and during any program undertaken, closer attention be given to the training of program personnel. We subscribe to the notion that little significant educational yardage is gained over time without serious preparation and continuous training. Spontaneous success from short, off-the-cuff training programs is rare, fleeting, and usually trite. We are aware that it is often difficult to get staffs to respond willingly to such training requirements. The norms of individual autonomy in education, combined with a growing tendency for many persons to subordinate their work commitments to personal interests, as well as the increasing number of formal contracts that severely restrict time permitted for staff training, make this imperative a formidable one to achieve.

Five: The Program Must Fulfill the Conditions of the Accountability Concept

An obvious ingredient of an accountability program design is that it fulfill the conditions of the concept. Fulfillment means that the design meets the following conditions:

1. The program's goals or objectives are specified operationally, that is, stated as assignable, measurable units of responsibility to be fulfilled under defined conditions and within defined constraints. If the proposed program focuses on student learning, the sought-after learner outcomes are designated in terms of behavioral objectives.
2. Periodically an account is rendered, stating as clearly and accurately as possible what results are being attained toward reaching the program's specified goals. The use of various new components in management technology is expected to make such reporting easier and more accurate. The account is expected to be rendered to those who participated in the formulation of its objectives and certainly to those who hold legal authority for the operation of the district. If the program encompasses sizable numbers of students (a matter of comparative judgment), there is an added expectation that the account be rendered as public knowledge. If a lay-professional credibility problem exists in a particular community, there is an option to use a third-party educational program auditor.

3. The issue of what is expected from the program must be resolved before it is put into operation—a prerequisite for stating the program's goals. In stable communities that hold their professional staffs in high regard, regularly support school tax referenda, allow their staffs considerable professional autonomy, and appear to be getting "value received" for this kind of operation, there is likely to be less demand for direct participation from sources outside the school employ. This state of affairs, however, is not consistent with the trend. It is more likely that, in order to get the program sufficiently supported and its objectives stated fairly to all parties, it will be necessary to involve many persons. Accordingly, some mechanism for community-staff involvement is deemed necessary as a step toward developing a consensus of expectations. Certainly those most affected by the proposed program should be represented in some manner. Some are likely to look upon this condition as one related to negotiating accountability. Political overtones are bound to be experienced in the more volatile communities. At least attempts at meeting this condition should bring all parties face to face and, as they attempt to work out (negotiate?) their expectations as program objectives, cut through much of the standard rhetoric and dogma attached to interest groups.
4. Consideration of rewards and penalties for the steward's performance is part of the accountability process. Measurably stated program goals and objectives stand as performance markers for both stewards and reviewers. Normally, if the steward achieves these stated objectives, it is understood that he will be given an agreed-upon reward and can expect his reviewers to maintain their confidence in his stewardship. What happens, however, if the steward far exceeds the program's objectives or badly falls short of them? Are rewards and penalties for performance outside an acceptable "normal" defined range to become part of the agreement? If so, how? Such considerations may become part of the agreement. Our guess is that in the initial stages, the staff is more likely to be supportive of an accountability program if the program foregoes including a rewards-and-penalties schedule for results that fall outside a defined range of normal expectations. Without such a schedule, a form of "Karma accountability" comes into play; that is, those staff members who fail to achieve program objectives and in the process lose the confidence of their reviewers will not be immediately penalized for their lack of achievement. Instead, this lack of achievement will influence

the steward's future relations to the program. He simply will not be invited to continue his stewardship of the program until or unless his reviewers regain confidence in his ability as a steward. On the other hand, if the steward far exceeds expectations for the current program, he might also reasonably expect a commensurately increased level of rewards in the next offering of the program under the notion of Karma accountability.

It should be kept in mind that the accountability concept is a process of relationships: it is a means rather than an end. As a process, it can be attached to any program the school desires—the standard curriculum, modern math, team teaching, nongraded instruction, the open classroom, differentiated staffing, and so on. All that is required is that (a) the work to be done is specified operationally and (2) an accurate account of results achieved is rendered periodically, and that an appropriate group (c) decides what should be expected from the program, incorporating those agreed-upon expectations into the program's tasks specifications, and (d) recognizes formally or informally that some party acts in authority to decide whether the results achieved are acceptable or not (with the option that this condition may be handled either in the initial agreement or, as is more common, as a matter of judgment applied after the account has been rendered).

Six: The Program Must Be Judged Politically Attainable

The political climate today should be frankly recognized in your design. Politics—the schoolman's variety of it[11]—has always been a part of program decision making. "Will it work in this school district?" probably runs through the minds of most schoolmen before they embark on new programs. It is still a good question to ask, particularly before committing yourself publicly to the pursuit of a specific accountability program. If after you have done some preliminary planning (i.e., assessed needs, considered several change strategies, reviewed possible resources, and thought through a plan far enough to anticipate what will be major hurdles in your district) you cannot conclude a reasonable expectation for success, you should forget about it until more favorable conditions arise, unless various group pressures leave you no alternative.

Certainly, two key items in making your decision will be its financial feasibility and its ability to accommodate various group antagonisms. We have enough confidence in the nature of accountability to believe that, once it is in process, a truer picture of program finances will emerge. As it does, mapping out results achieved for

time and money expended, as well as educational values received, is bound to add appeal for an accountability approach to decision making. Assuming that financial resources will remain scarce and that it will continue to be necessary to choose with limited resources among competing program alternatives, the financial and educational hard data engendered by the process make it compelling.

There are no foolproof guides we can offer for accommodating group antagonisms, particularly when they are blatant. The nature of the administrator's role means that he is expected to work *rationally* toward *rational* solutions to problems. Many of the antagonisms among groups arise from frustration over achieving their aspirations, as well as over fears and suspicions of other parties. In working toward rational solutions to problems, the administrator is likely to have to design a mechanism that (a) tries to separate out what each group wants from what the data shows the educational program needs in more generic terms, (b) can make a data-referenced case for subverting portions of each group's antagonisms enough to permit mutually recognized needs to be treated as task objectives, and (3) attempts to maintain a critical balance of active support to assure legitimate program operation (i.e., de facto support rather than de jure, in which parties are invited to attack unchecked any public servant). If such a mechanism is necessary in your district, if it can be fashioned, then the man who applies it might do well to keep Kipling's lines in mind: "If you can keep your head when all about you are losing theirs and blaming it on you . . . ."

We guess that most schoolmen, given the opportunity, will try an accountability program on a limited basis, perhaps either on the worst educational problems in the district (where people are willing to admit at least tacitly that things could not be much worse) or under the best conditions (where staff self-confidence is realistic, earned, and high; where the spirit of innovation is strong and the parents are understanding). Wherever it is applied—including across the entire district—as schoolmen become familiar with the components that support the extended treatment of the accountability process, they will cross a new threshold administratively, one that enables their institutions to respond more rapidly to change.

DEVELOPING IMPERATIVES INTO AN EDUCATIONALLY ACCOUNTABLE PROGRAM

Forearmed with advice, what do you do now? It should be clear that, as we view it, there is no single "best" approach. The recent history of the accountability concept, a concept still in transition, applied to educational tasks is still too brief. It is impossible for us

to prescribe minutely a single "best" approach that would hold for all cases. It is doubtful that *the* approach will ever emerge. Accordingly, a blend of art, science, and good judgment (admittedly difficult terms to define rigorously) is expected to attend the pragmatic development of an educationally accountable program designed to fit a particular situation. You must do your own tailoring. At the most basic level, a program may be earmarked an "accountability program" if it merely incorporates the conditions of the concept, whether it is applied to subjects learned (e.g., reading, math, and others) or organizational patterns studied. Successfully incorporating these conditions, however, is not likely to be casually performed, especially when the form of accountability is educational in nature and involves both the community and the staff. Not being able to present you *the* approach, therefore, we offer instead what we hope is a "reasonable" one.

Imagine yourself an administrative leader (one, as the late Bill Odell would say, who "calls for action on a problem toward which he is inevitably being shoved"). You are considering an educational change of some magnitude, perhaps to make more accountable the educational program of many children in your jurisdiction. It would require a degree of change on the part of your professional staff as well as the involvement and support of the lay community concerned. We can imagine this pragmatic administrator to perceive the task of developing an educationally accountable program in roughly four phases:

Phase 1: Preliminary Planning

Phase 2: Formal Planning

Phase 3: Program Implementation

Phase 4: Rendering the Account.

Phase 1: Preliminary Planning

Characteristics of Phase 1. The aim of the preliminary planning phase is to determine informally whether it is feasible to consider some form of educationally accountable program for the particular area under consideration (e.g., the particular area might cover the educational program of the entire district or only a single classroom). It represents a feasibility study seeking a decision whether to move into Phase 2 or to drop the matter from consideration for the present. Probably only a few key people need to be involved at this point. In framing an answer, it is expected that (a) each of the imperatives offered above will have been duly considered, and (b) a positive decision to move ahead to Phase 2 is regarded as "tentative,"

allowing for an enlarged group involvement in the planning process, perhaps to repeat portions of the preliminary planning steps more formally before coming to a decision of its own to move further, or not to move at all.

Critical and Optional Considerations for Phase 1. To complete Phase 1, two critical elements ("needs assessment" and "change strategies") and one optional aspect ("technical assistance and management systems") must be considered.

One of the first steps for any administrator (or group) contemplating introducing a change into an organization is gathering data to understand its present condition. Knowing where your schools are educationally is requisite knowledge for any school administrator. Aside from developing an accountability program toward what *should* be done, good data on what *is* being done (sometimes referred to as "informational power") (a) are capable of changing people's preconceived attitudes toward innovating change, (b) identify and clarify problems, (c) are indispensable to complex decision making, and (d) constitute a commonly shared expectation people have of those who would lead them (i.e., that the leader is "informed").[12] Making a needs assessment is therefore a preliminary first step. It may be repeated in the second phase by a larger group, but the leader has some notion beforehand where to lead such a group and is able to anticipate "surprise" findings.

Once the educational needs of the district or program under consideration are identified to a degree that an administrator feels he can speak with confidence about "where we are" educationally, the next step is to contemplate a preliminary change strategy to "take us where we want to be." A preliminary change strategy might aim at (a) developing a general awareness—a "receptive climate"—of educational needs in a positive sense (e.g., "We think we have identified some areas that, with your help and cooperation, we can develop further"); (b) involving groups of persons directly concerned with the definition of tasks, particularly in setting program goals and performance objectives; and (c) leading the way to a formal change strategy (perhaps as developed by the groups involved or adopted by them from the preliminary strategy or some new strategy developed by the staff with technical assistance) that embraces goal and objective setting (i.e., task specification), program planning, staff training and implementation, and program evaluation with the rendering of the account. As mentioned above, this preliminary change strategy development may be repeated as a process in Phase 2 to give thrust to the group's decision on what the specific goals of the program should be.

Before going further, it is possible to consider an option sometimes overlooked by harried administrators with do-it-yourself habits. A decision might be considered to use various forms of technical assistance and/or management systems. Avant-garde administrators tend to believe that large-scale, complex accountability programs require these aids. Local conditions, however, will have to determine "how much" and "what kind of" technological help is possible. Even if no technological assistance appears to be immediately available, the administrator might find it helpful to explore (a) the kinds of technical assistance that may be sought (i.e., the means by which parts of the program might be helped along by drawing upon community, business, industrial, labor, other educational, scientific, social/welfare, and governmental agencies for expertise and services); and (b) the use of various systems approaches to problem solving (i.e., the potential uses of supportive management techniques like MBO, PPBS, PERT, CPM, computer applications, information retrieval systems, etc.). Again, these considerations are optional.

End Point of Phase 1. After the above considerations have been carried out, the remaining major decision for Phase 1 awaits: Is it feasible for us to continue?

Every public school has limited resources in terms of time, men, and money. The problems calling for attention are typically numerous. Desmond Cook points out: "The organization, however, must recognize that if all available resources are allocated to a few projects, its ability to respond to new ideas is limited." [13] In relation to other needs, and for the future, does the project have sufficient merit to pursue it as a priority? The answer for the administrator is plainly a matter of judgment; it is to be hoped that, if he has done his homework well in Phase 1, he will bring "informed" judgment to bear.[14]

Assuming that the administrator's judgment acknowledges the project's priority over other needs, assuming it merits further consideration, the imperatives offered previously call for review. Can he affirm that the proposed program—

- Has designers with the requisite knowledge?
- Leads to potentially improved education?
- Will recognize and accommodate diverse forms of participation?
- Will train program personnel before and during implementation?
- Will generally fulfill the conditions of the accountability concept?
- Is judged politically attainable?

If he feels satisfied with his answers to these questions, he is nearly ready to move into Phase 2. He has determined the program to be initially feasible. From this point onward the program is likely to assume a momentum of its own. The administrator should recognize and be willing to accept this risk. If his homework was done well, we think the risk is worth taking. If *you* do not, consider the alternatives and ask if they are really viable today.

If the administrator takes the risk, he reports his recommendation to his superior (the school board; or, if he is a lesser administrator, to the superintendent and, with the superintendent's blessing, to the board). The school board, the state's legally empowered reviewer of local programs, should probably make the decision to move forward or not, especially if the preliminary plan calls for community involvement. Their decision, yes or no, completes Phase 1.

An Example of Phase 1. Suppose, after some preliminary sifting of the educational needs of your district, a picture emerges that the basic reading competency of many students is not what it should be. Standardized test results, complaints of teachers and parents, all seem to point to the same problem: a low level of basic reading competency across the district. To the extent that you and your administrative team are able, data are mustered to come to the conclusion that, given the district's level of resources to attack problems, "basic reading competency" is *the* problem to be tackled. From the data amassed, it is identified by the administration as the top educational priority of the district.

But this conclusion must be shared with others. Some may disagree with it. Others may want the scarce resources of the district expended on other problems or interests. People can be expected to react differently to the earmarking of an educational need for special attention. It thus becomes necessary for the administrator to give some thought to how this educational priority will be approached. In short, he needs to consider a change strategy.

Successfully operating programs for a district seldom occurs by accident. Who is to be involved, when, where, how, and under what conditions are items that are part of preliminary planning. In a sense, the change strategy efforts are directed toward planning how to plan the program. Later, others will be involved and charged with the task of fully developing an accountable program aimed at resolving the reading problem. Full-blown programs, complete in every detail, may spring from the brow of Zeus but not from administrators courting cooperation and involvement of others. Thus the administrative team drafts tentative program outlines that, at this stage,

supply enough detail to enable estimated responses for answering the imperatives necessary for educationally accountable programs.

When the administrative team has completed its preliminary planning efforts and comes to a positive conclusion about what needs to be done to successfully launch the program's formal planning and development, it is ready to take the proposal to the board of education. In this example, the board must reach a decision whether the tentative administrative proposal for formally exploring with the community and staff the possibility of developing an educationally accountable program aimed at basic reading competency should be encouraged. Phase 1 ends when the board of education gives the venture its blessing.

Phase 2: Formal Planning

Characteristics of Phase 2. The purpose of Phase 2 is twofold:

1. To place before the community and staff two questions: What *does* our school do? and What *should* it be doing?
2. To bring together an appropriate group of persons to work on these questions by (a) examining the extant data (for what they say and, sometimes shockingly, for what they fail to say); (b) considering alternative ways to meet the questions; and, (c) of major importance, developing a consensus of the goals and objectives of an educational program.

At the same time, because much of Phase 2 is a closely related (but more refined and comprehensive) version of Phase 1, it also asks, can and should we implement a particular accountability program such as basic reading competency? We hypothesize that if the judgments made in Phase 1 are accurate, the answers concerning feasibility for Phase 2 should be compellingly affirmative. That is, the community and staff should want, perhaps among other things also, an educationally accountable basic reading competency program.

Critical and Optional Considerations for Phase 2. In the groundwork for Phase 2, two aspects appear critically important—"community-staff involvement" and "performance objectives"—and a third consideration optional—"planning-programming-budgeting."

The increased politicization of the schools makes community-staff involvement both more necessary and more difficult. Many administrators are likely to seek to avoid this step because of its bothersome qualities. In his study for New York State's Fleischmann Commission, Dale Mann claims that more than half (59 percent) of the representative cross-section of 165 administrators surveyed have

a "trustee" role in their relationships with the community. These trustee administrators (principals and superintendents) "will substitute their own judgment for that of the communities they serve, even when those communities . . . have expressed wishes contrary to those of the administrators." [15] The study portrays a resulting downward spiral of confidence: the public, feeling unwanted, begins to withdraw its support (financial and spiritual); the educational quality of the school begins to show deterioration from a lack of interest and support; the public withdraws even further its confidence; and mistrust and disappointment fill the void between the school and the community.

To build a healthy, viable educationally accountable program, we argue against the trustee administration, although we recognize that many communities willingly abdicate their responsibilities to the professional educator (in much the same way that many parents abdicate responsibility for their children, leaving other agencies, such as the school, to provide what absentee parental attention cannot). Time is running out on the trustee educator, however. With the pressure for change unabating, the chances increase that he will either succeed in building a cooperative relationship with interested citizens or fall victim to a political boss using blatant power tactics. We prefer that he take the initiative in building the cooperative relationship.

In bringing together a diverse group of people to involve them, the object will be to raise an interrelated set of educational questions: What are we trying to accomplish? What should we be trying to accomplish? The data collected in the preliminary needs assessment will probably answer these questions only generally. Your task will be to help the group clarify their thinking. Educational goals need to be operationally defined with measurable results over a realistically long period of time. Their related objectives will be more specific, short-term, results-oriented, and moving toward the achievement of a goal.

For example, suppose the school district's educational philosophy had long subscribed to the idea that *every child shall learn.* Precisely what every child shall learn, however, was never clearly stipulated or ranked in terms of priority. When asked (perhaps through the Delphi Technique mentioned above), the community's overwhelming response was the endorsement of *mastery of basic reading competency* as its first educational goal priority. While such a goal—that every child shall master basic reading competency—tells us more about the educational intentions of the district, it needs to be reduced further to give a clearer picture of what is expected. Accordingly, the Advisory Planning Committee

(with technical assistance) provides reading competency objectives that add to our understanding. To make the objectives politically palatable to the community, members of the committee (remember, involvement in educational endeavors of persons with differing viewpoints frequently requires politically as well as educationally acceptable settlements) state the objectives according to universal standards rather than in terms of the individual learner (the way usually more acceptable to educators). Thus they interpret "mastery of basic reading competency" to mean that (a) at the elementary level (K-6), mastery is grade reading level (within standard scoring deviations) as determined by standardized tests; and (b) before high school graduation, all graduating students shall be required to demonstrate an adult survival reading capacity of 90 percent proficiency on such reading materials as the local newspaper, the United States Constitution, the state driver's manual, state and federal income tax forms, standard health insurance policies, and similar items. At a basic level, these objectives translate into more operational terms the district's top goal priority. The Advisory Planning Committee then adds more expectation statements in developing these basic learning expectations into an educationally accountable reading competency program that takes into consideration such individualized variables as the student's aptitude for learning, the quality of instruction, the learner's ability to understand instruction, and his learning perseverance and fondness for reading.

As identifiable educational goals emerge, so does another option for the program planners—that of developing a budget on a program-objective format as opposed to the traditional line-item organization. In that way it is also possible to chart and account for the financial costs of different approaches to achieving mastery of reading competency.

End of Phase 2. Phase 2 is complete when:

- An appropriate community-staff group has met and determined for an educational program (probably ultimately identified with the help of a needs assessment) its goals and objectives in operational terms.
- It may have designed the specific program but is likely to leave such designing to the professional staff, subject to review before implementation.
- It has some notion of who will render a progress report on the achievement of the specified goals and objectives, when the report might be rendered, and what information it should include.

- Depending upon the temper and earnestness of the group, it may even have designated or requested that those involved in the program are responsible for particular objective achievements. (And if the group's aim is to propose a formal contract—an option—it has committed its level-of-confidence decisions beforehand by stating the rewards and penalties awarded by the results achieved.)
- If the group has considered formal performance contracting, it has reached a point at which it can post the RFP's (requests for proposals).

Again, if the involved group has been able to realize this degree of accomplishment, the likelihood is strong that the checklist of imperatives will receive affirmative conclusions. If not, the group's attention should be focused on the problem area. If the problem cannot be resolved, either the project should be abandoned or it should be salvaged where possible by redesigning it under some other label that presumably removes the obstacle.

Phase 3: Program Implementation

Characteristics of Phase 3. The major concern of Phase 3 centers on the task of further developing the staff and implementing the particular program (e.g., basic reading competency). By now, the major dimensions of the program will have been formed: through the needs assessment, specific problem areas will have been identified; a preliminary and then formal change strategy to involve people in the review of needs, the framing of general goals and performance objectives, and the design of the program will have been employed; and, presumably, a generally supportive climate (in terms of attitudes, financial support, realistic time constraints, etc.) will have been established (negotiated?) through community and staff involvement. It now becomes necessary for the staff directly involved with implementing the project to come together to develop further the ways of achieving the program's objectives. Teaching strategies need to be considered, learners targeted, staff trained, and the program placed in operation.

Critical and Optional Considerations for Phase 3. Staff development is a critical component in successfully launching an educationally accountable program. Most schoolmen hold the belief that staff development is important. Unfortunately, a look at school budgets and practices too often reflects that, while it may be regarded as important, it is given low priority among competing needs. The combination of short funds, unfocused purposes, re-

luctant staffs, short-term time commitments, and off-the-cuff leadership has marred many staff development attempts. Our expectations are different. Remember, we want to avoid failure, not encourage it. Before the basic reading competency program is implemented, for example, we expect the staff:

1. To clearly understand the purpose, goals, and objectives of the program.
2. To know exactly what measurable changes are expected in the identified learners and later be able to make this knowledge equally clear to the learners.
3. To hold a professional point of view—a "zero reject" conviction that no child will be abandoned or rejected as a learner[16] if the expected changes do not occur in the individual, and that the program and its manner of implementation as well as its appropriateness for that individual will be restudied and alternatives sought.[17]
4. To understand the theory or model of instruction that buttresses the program being undertaken.[18]
5. To attempt some mock-up or dry-run pretesting of the program on themselves and then on a small group of students.
6. To devise procedures for monitoring progress and be sharp enough to pinpoint programming problems to allow necessary changes while the program is going on.[19]
7. To be knowledgeable about the manner in which the program is to be evaluated and the account rendered.

A desired secondary outcome of the staff development effort, an outcome that stems from involvement in the development process itself, is that a positive attitude will grow among the staff toward each other, the learners, and the program. For many localities, this secondary hope may be unrealistic. Some staffs may be closed, hardened, and cynical, perhaps with good reason. They may have worked in a world where seemingly no good deed goes unpunished. We are operating, perhaps naively, on Douglas McGregor's now classic assumption that most staffs would sincerely like to improve their performance.[20] Given the opportunity to become involved in the formative stages of the program, provided the tasks of sharpening their understanding and practices, noting the potential for better feedback of their teaching-learning impact, presenting a way for them to isolate learner difficulties more effectively, and allowing the emergence of some—to us—realistic standards of success in the discharge of their responsibilities, we believe most staffs should respond favorably. Frederick Herzberg holds that if a man has

challenging work in which he can assume responsibility, he is likely to be favorably motivated.[21] This aspect of the staff development component is desired. The term *professional challenge* has been much abused over the past decade, but it remains critical to the success of the program that those involved perceive their work as both highly professional and challenging.

Another optional approach may also be considered in Phase 3. It includes consideration of whether or not the program is to be shaped in the form of a performance contract (internal or external) spelling out all the clauses of the accountability process.

Under this arrangement the board of education, at the recommendation of the Advisory Planning Committee, might post a request for reading competency program proposals, indicating in the RFP's what was expected to result from the program. Either staff members or outside contractors could submit bids and descriptions of how they would meet these expectations. The bid plans would then be reviewed, a selection made, and the conditions of the performance contract finalized (especially the basis of payment and manner of noting learning progress). The selected contractor would then proceed to implement the performance contract according to the agreement.

End of Phase 3. Phase 3 ends at some preestablished point, according to the terms of the plan approved in Phase 2 (unless some further adjustment in the plan has been made in Phase 3). Usually a predetermined time is selected (the end of a semester, a year, two years, whatever) for making a critical judgment about the program. If the program is experimental (as most new programs tend to be viewed), this critical point will raise the question of whether it should be certified as successful and be continued (perhaps disseminating it to other programs or areas in the district), or as needing modifications, or as a failure. At any rate, in an accountability program there comes a time when its stewards are expected to reach a predetermined point in their work, to order their account formally, and to render it. Phase 3 ends for our purposes when that point is reached.

Phase 4: Rendering the Account

Characteristics of Phase 4. The final phase of the program deals with taking a close look at our efforts and reporting the results in accordance with the plan adopted in Phase 2. Did the students succeed in reaching the objectives stated for the program? What differences are there between the actual learner behaviors (what is) and the behaviors projected in the performance objectives (what

should be)? Many other questions related to the program and the manner and effects of its functioning will be raised. But after the account has been reached, the learning achievements assessed, the stated objectives compared with the data, the many facets of the program analyzed, the second task arises: to present it to the reviewers.

Critical and Optional Considerations for Phase 4. The two critical functions very apparent in Phase 4 are the tasks of evaluating the program in terms of learner outcomes and rendering the account to the reviewers. Within both tasks are optional considerations and degrees of sophistication. At the simplest level, the task would be to collect, analyze, and report on the data that bear solely upon determining the degree to which the program's operation has met its stated objectives. For example, are the objectives of the reading competency program being met? This means that persons in Phase 2, when they established the goals and objectives of the program, also established the procedures and kinds of evidence to be used in evaluating and reporting it. Presumably the evaluation devices used are appropriate to the objectives. If standardized tests are used, for example, they are selected and used solely according to their ability to assess evidence on the particular objectives of the reading competency program.[22]

The evaluation effort may go beyond this point. For example, it may consist of assessing (a) both group and individual learners' aptitudes for the particular kinds of learning, (b) the general quality of instruction, (c) learner ability to understand that variety of instruction, (d) the degree of enthusiasm and perseverance shown by the learners in pursuing the instruction, and (e) the time needed by different students to attain their level of reading achievement.

It might include a cost-effectiveness analysis as well. For example, one very simple analysis uncovered a situation in which an exercise machine costing over $20,000 and operated by an athletic director (whose daily hours of time were prorated from an annual salary of $17,000), handling eighteen boys every twenty minutes (with another instructor working elsewhere with the remainder of the shuttling boys), achieved the same stated objectives as a student-run and faculty-advised twenty-minute calisthenics program. The latter program, in addition to costing only the faculty adviser's small $700 fee and $200 worth of the school doctor's time to OK the boys in it (the same charge for the boys using the machine), had the added advantage of promoting leadership and record-keeping responsibilities among several of the boys.[23] In short, there are many ways and forms of evaluation.

The task of rendering the account remains—a necessary condition of the accountability process itself. After the evaluation is completed (the data collected, analyzed, and interpreted), it is encumbent upon those responsible for management of the project to report the findings. From Phase 2, we will know (a) who will make the report, (b) how it will be made, (c) what it should contain, and (d) to whom it will be delivered. Another option toward rendering the account also might have been considered earlier: the use of an independent educational program audit. Perhaps either a special committee of community-staff persons or an independent educational program audit group from outside may have been selected to review the reading competency program and either corroborate or take issue with the findings.

End of Phase 4. The program evaluated and the account rendered, the stewards stand ready for an expression of confidence from the reviewers. Will the stewards face "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune" or, as suggested by Frank Lloyd Wright, bask in the glory of approval in either hypocritical humility or honest arrogance? It is more probable that reality will place the reflection of confidence somewhere between the arrows and the exultation. If the early cards-on-the-table form of accountability was employed, the level-of-confidence issue was calculated in Phase 2 before undertaking the reading competency project. Rewards (and penalties if they were included in the agreement) would be based upon these preconditions. The level-of-confidence issue would be resolved, then, upon the degree of realization of the stated expectations and the positive or negative consequences to flow from it. If an independent program auditor was used, it is probable that stewards and reviewers have agreed to accept the auditor's report as the basis of decisions (with an appropriate preestablished mechanism to permit either the stewards or the reviewers to contest the auditor's report). Normally it is the task of the reviewers to make the report public knowledge (unless it was decided earlier that the stewards would make this information public at the time of formally presenting their account to the reviewers). Presumably, the stewards have rendered periodic progress reports to the public. The reviewers have the tasks of (a) receiving the stewards' report, (b) deciding whether the findings appear accurate and complete, (c) determining the degree of success with which the program may be certified, (d) settling the level-of-confidence issue in regard to the stewards, and (e) informing the general public of its action—the public exercising a level-of-confidence review of its own. But, for our purposes, the

process of developing an educationally accountable program is completed.

Two summary ways of viewing the development of this accountability program are shown in figures 1 and 2.

FIGURE 1.—A PROCESS FOR DEVELOPING AN ACCOUNTABILITY PROGRAM

Phase 1: Preliminary Planning

- Assess needs (critical)
- Develop a preliminary change strategy (critical)
- Consider the use of technical assistance and management systems (optional)
- Make decision to move, or not to move, to Phase 2

Phase 2: Formal Planning

- Involve community/staff (critical)
  - —Repeat needs assessment (optional)
  - —Repeat change strategy development (optional)
- Develop goal consensus and performance objectives (critical)
- Consider plan-program-budget system (optional)
- Make decision to move, or not to move, to Phase 3

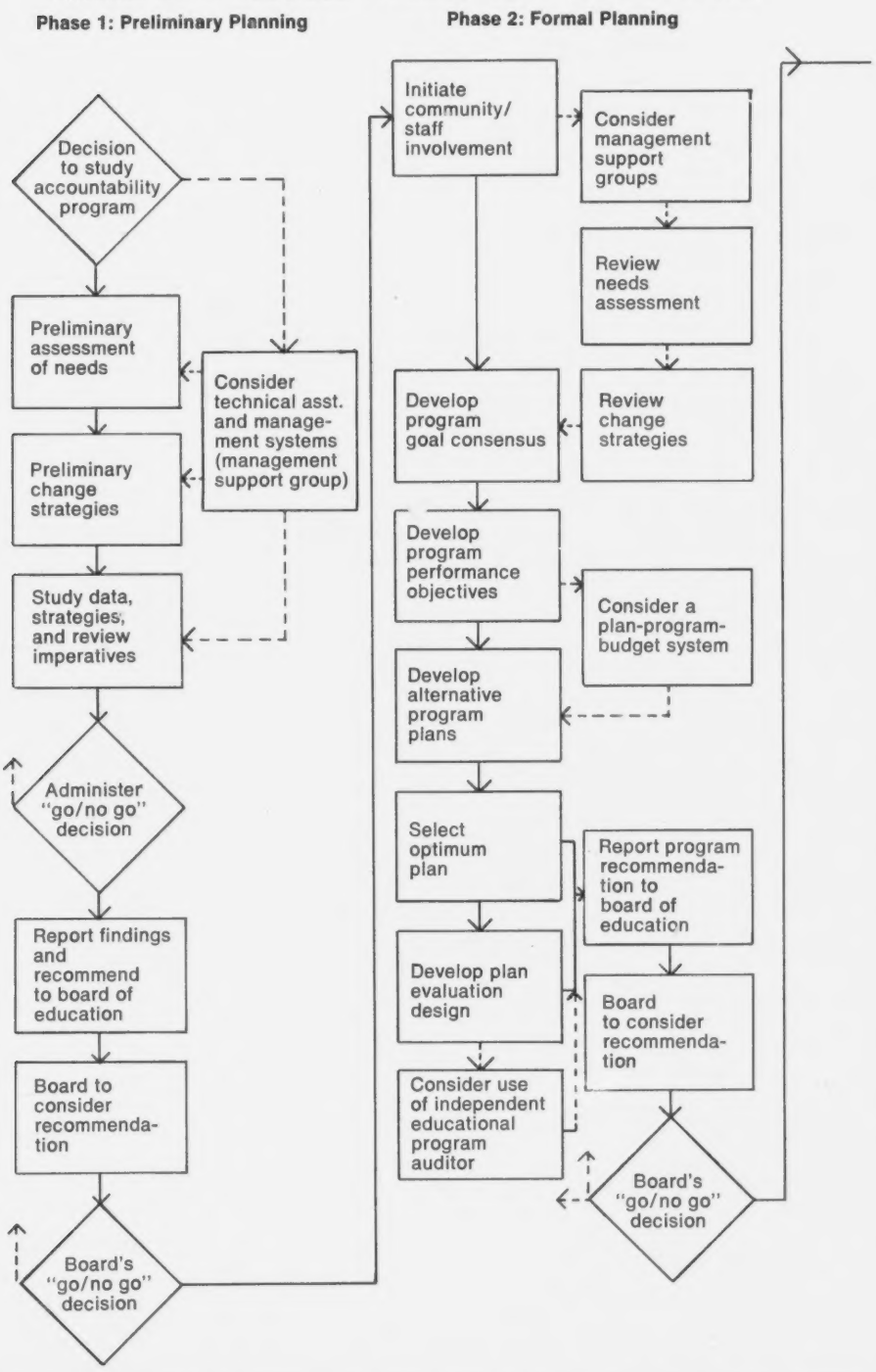
Phase 3: Program Implementation

- Develop program staff (critical)
- Implement program procedures (critical)
- Consider
  - —Performance contracting (internal and/or external) (optional)
  - —Network monitoring (optional)
- Reach predetermined completion points of program efforts

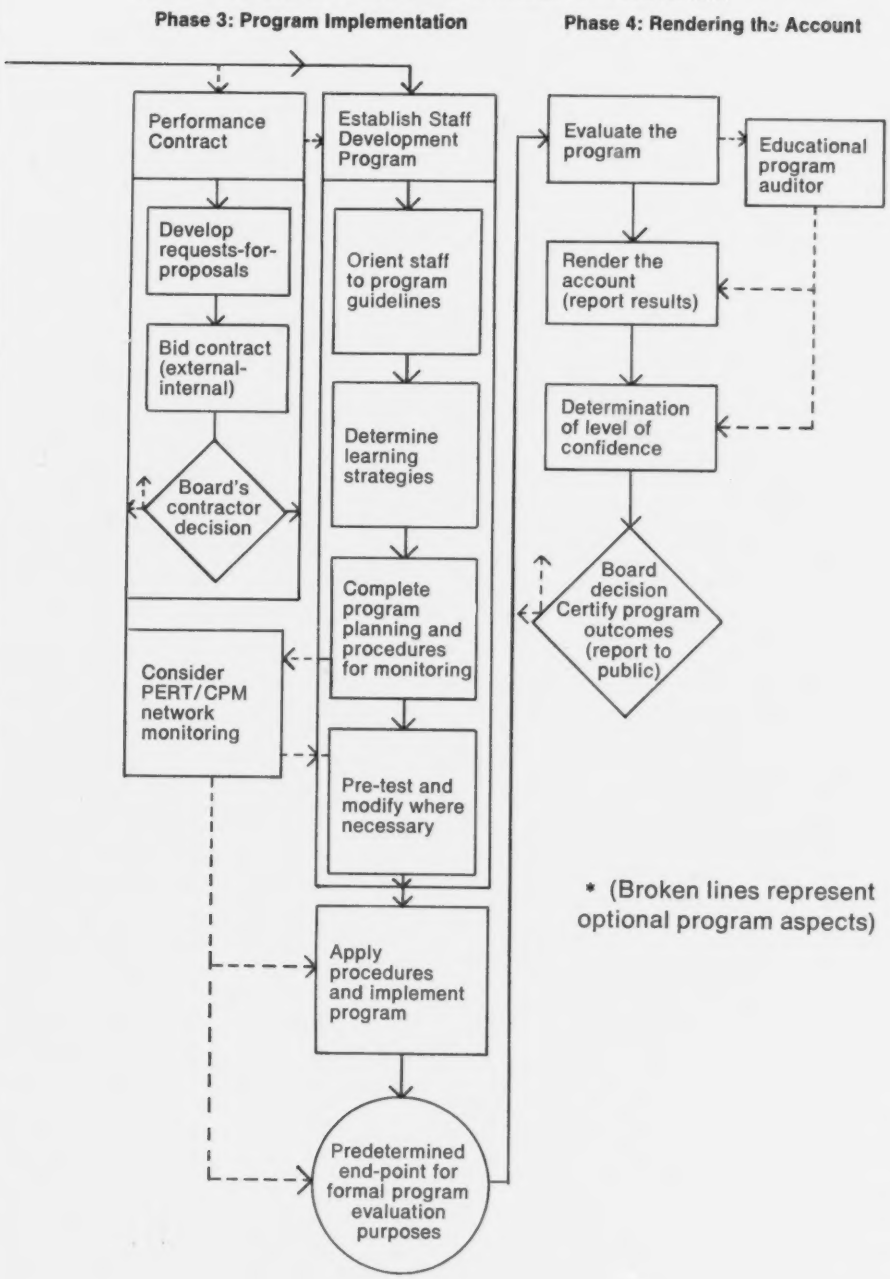
Phase 4: Rendering the Account

- Evaluate program (critical)
- Report the results (critical)
- Use an educational program auditor (optional)
- Determine level of confidence (critical)
- Certify the nature of results (critical)

FIGURE 2.—A POSSIBLE FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPING


Phase 1: Preliminary Planning
Phase 2: Formal Planning
Decision to study accountability program
Preliminary assessment of needs
Consider technical asst. and management systems (management support group)
Preliminary change strategies
Study data, strategies, and review imperatives
Administer "go/no go" decision
Report findings and recommend to board of education
Board to consider recommendation
Board's "go/no go" decision
Initiate community/ staff involvement
Consider management support groups
Review needs assessment
Develop program goal consensus
Review change strategies
Develop program performance objectives
Consider a plan-program-budget system
Develop alternative program plans
Select optimum plan
Report program recommendation to board of education
Develop plan evaluation design
Board to consider recommendation
Consider use of independent educational program auditor
Board's "go/no go" decision

AN EDUCATIONAL ACCOUNTABILITY PROGRAM*

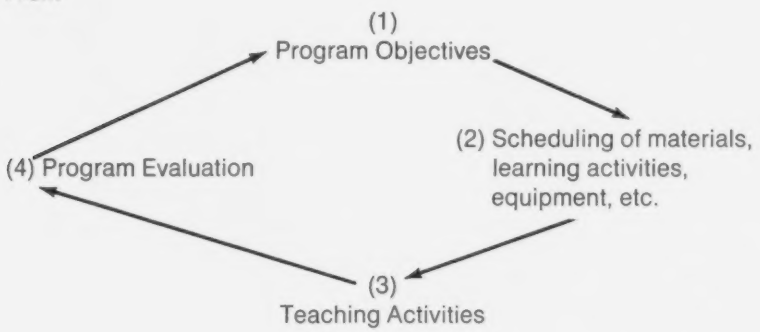

Phase 3: Program Implementation
Phase 4: Rendering the Account
Performance Contract
Develop requests-for-proposals
Bid contract (external-internal)
Board's contractor decision
Establish Staff Development Program
Orient staff to program guidelines
Determine learning strategies
Complete program planning and procedures for monitoring
Pre-test and modify where necessary
Consider PERT/CPM network monitoring
Apply procedures and implement program
Predetermined end-point for formal program evaluation purposes
Evaluate the program
Educational program auditor
Render the account (report results)
Determination of level of confidence
Board decision Certify program outcomes (report to public)

* (Broken lines represent optional program aspects)

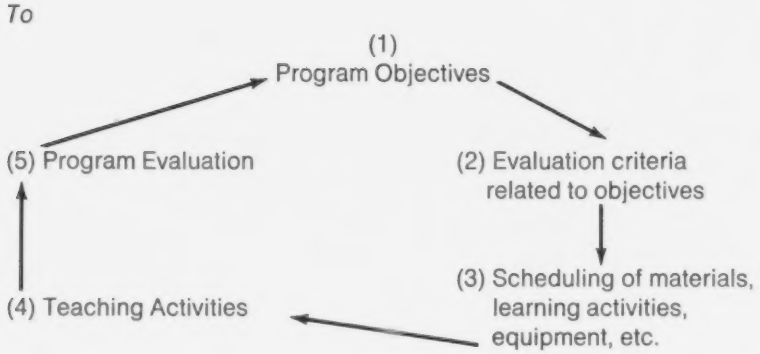
TAILORING A CONCEPT

It would be misleading for us to present only a single model for developing an accountability program. Certainly the complexity of our model can be considerably simplified. At the same time, there are degrees of accountability. Ray Bernabei, for example, has suggested that it is possible to take a classic curriculum and instruction approach and, by degree, make it "more accountable." This may be accomplished simply by insisting that the criteria for validly evaluating the results be established prior to the operation of the program.[24]

From



To



Several variations on the accountability theme are possible. For example, under the classification "flower," many kinds of plants grow. Some are hard to recognize and classify as flowers. Similarly, it is possible to conceive of many variations for program design. Some of these variations (sketched briefly as lines of thought) are

offered in figure 3. No attempt has been made to exhaust the possibilities. Hopefully, the point is made that the accountability concept is generic and capable of breeding a garden full of hybrid program species.[25]

PRESENTING EDUCATIONALLY ACCOUNTABLE PROGRAMS

What can you expect to happen if you embark on the accountability process suggested in our model? While the history of accountability in education is still too brief to supply many data-based conclusions, problems stand out. As in making any conscious choice, there are some advantages and disadvantages.

Let us begin by mentioning again that this form of accountability in education has had a short history. The brevity of its existence means at least that (a) as a new concept to education it must be acknowledged as an "innovation" and is therefore prone to all the maladies associated with educational innovations; and (b) because it is new, its workability and effectiveness cannot be abundantly demonstrated in terms of "research evidence." In education, these twin shortcomings (if you view them that way) are almost certain to be seized upon by critics. While we do not regard these items as serious limitations, we do recognize them as being immediate, especially in presenting educationally accountable programs to staff and community.

What limitations might we expect from "innovation"? Because education over the past fifteen years has been exposed to many ideas (e.g., what ever happened to bomb shelter plans?), many persons have assumed a sort of mechanical anti-innovation stance toward *any* proposal. This attitude may appear ludicrous to some, but it is necessary to deal with it administratively. Below are characteristics of educational innovations as they have appeared over the years that seem applicable to our proposal (the reader should hear an echo from the program's planning imperatives).[26]

Limitations of Innovative Programs and Possible Responses

1. *The proposed model has not been developed, implemented, and evaluated. ("You're experimenting with our children!")*

Response. Most conventional programs have not been carefully developed, implemented, and evaluated to the degree proposed for this accountability program. The focus of the proposed process

FIGURE 3.—VARIATIONS ON THE ACCOUNTABILITY THEME: SOME EXAMPLES

Elements of Basic Theme	Variation I	Variation II
Clarify expectations into goals and measurable objectives	Two parties (stewards and reviewers)	The "accountability team"—perhaps teachers and administrators
Specify tasks/delineate conditions	Negotiate agreement on: (1) tasks (goals, objectives) (2) constraints (time, money, conditions) (3) rewards/penalties based on results (predetermine level of confidence)	Clarify program objectives into specified, measurable outcomes
Render account of results achieved toward specified objectives	Steward does task	Delineate responsibilities (perhaps with an accountability chart)
Determine level of confidence by results achieved	Steward renders account of results	Develop alternative program means for achieving goals
	Reviewers determine acceptability of steward's account	Select optimum program plan
	Account agreement settled on predetermined level-of-confidence conditions to be accorded by results	Develop a supporting program evaluation system
		Implement program and its evaluation system
		Measure outcomes, performance, and program effectiveness

Variation III

Teachers plan lesson unit using behavioral objectives

Pre-test and modify lesson unit

Teach lesson unit

Monitor teacher performance and learner behavior during instruction

Evaluate:

(1) learner outcomes
(2) teaching performance
(3) appropriateness of content and learning strategy
(4) total effectiveness of lesson unit (student achievements, time, money, etc.)

Replan lesson unit with review/modification of goals, objectives, learning strategies, budget, and administrative procedures

Variation IV

Student needs | Social values | Community expectations

Order educational goals and priorities for district

Hypothesize alternative approaches to meet district goals

Establish program area task forces to develop appropriate programs

Task forces to develop program and instructional objectives

Formulate learning strategy

Create program evaluation design

Implement program

Feed back data to reviewers

Variation V

Plan:

(1) Define need
(2) Establish objectives
(3) Generate alternatives
(4) Analyze and select among alternatives

Program:

Assign resources (staff, time, materials, strategies)

Budget:

Allocate resources to optimum plan

Operate program

Evaluate

should yield greater amounts of information on what both individuals and groups of students learn as a result of instructional strategies. In turn, this clarity of outcomes should permit (a) closer diagnosis of individual learning problems (it should be possible to pinpoint a learner profile based on his performance toward the criterion-referenced objectives of the program); (b) more complete determination about what effects the instructional strategy used had upon the students as a group (suggesting ways the program might be modified in the future as well as identifying areas calling for review with the current students); and (c) a way for staff to measure the relative effectiveness of their own efforts (enabling them to focus better their own professional efforts and, as a side issue, to discover areas where they might be receptive to in-service workshop activity based on obvious needs). Specific knowledge of what is intended to happen, followed by an accounting of what did happen based on results, would not appear to be irresponsible experimentation.

2. *Beyond adhering roughly to the general conditions of the concept, it is possible to get a wide variety of forms rather than one standard form to certify successful or unsuccessful. ("Why don't we just add 'accountability' to the title of our old programs and make the board happy?")*

Response. As long as the conditions of the concept are observed, flexibility of form is desirable. The fact that there are degrees of accountability should not be disturbing. The rigorousness of adhesion to the elements of the accountability concept should serve to indicate whether the program can be legitimately considered under that label. You be the judge. If nothing more, this design flexibility should prevent critics from stereotyping the program.

3. *Usually, any application of the accountability concept to a local district has to undergo some tailoring to fit the local conditions. ("If you use Jones, the principals won't speak to you. If you involve Smith, the teachers won't. So why don't you get some outsider so we can all get together and give him hell?")*

Response. Again, as long as it is possible to maintain the conditions of the concept with integrity, the local situation dictates the form (unless state or federal levels intervene with programs of their own). Whether you have "a little accountability" or a lot is left to your own discretion. As a rule of thumb, it might be wiser to accept a lesser degree of accountability than an all-or-none approach. For example, achieving only 50 percent of the objectives of a given program operationally accountable by results may prove more viable

locally than attempting to account for a 100 percent operationally accountable program—a purity of form desirable for either research purposes or external performance contracts but maybe unnecessary for local service.

4. *Implementing an accountability program usually requires several sets of interrelated, coordinated changes. ("Our staff believes in 'professional autonomy' where each member does what he thinks is right.")*

Response. Professional autonomy that translates into everyone doing his own thing makes the process of education haphazard and forever unable to become more effective than the sum of its individual parts. (In this case, its parts are generally represented by the solitary classroom teacher, a teacher characteristically drawn from the lower-standard scholastic achievement percentiles of college students.) The accountability program suggested in our model clearly implies a necessity for people to coordinate their actions, which is requisite to any educational endeavor that hopes to have greater impact than the sum of its parts. Also, there can and should be specifically planned freedoms of operation within the external boundaries (objectives, budget, time, scheduling, etc.) of the program.

5. *The innovation will not function successfully at the instructional level unless the staff has been appropriately trained and led in the handling of it. ("I'd like to see those bastards try to put that program in* my *class!")*

Response. This limitation is critical. Unless the staff involved with the program views it as highly professional work (which it is) and is willing to try (with the appropriate amounts of time for training), or powerful external support comes from other sources (support capable of removing obstacles), there is little hope of successful operation. In part, this explains why we have stressed involvement of staff in the early planning of the program.

6. *Like country doctors, it will probably be necessary to make do with the local leadership talent available. ("Who, me? I don't know anything about accountability!")*

Response. It is assumed that most local leadership talent can and ought to be developed. Any newly appointed administrator who has inherited his leadership team knows that this task may be formidable (particularly if the local talents were either vying for his

position or unenthusiastic about his appointment). Given a reasonably receptive group, however, it should be possible to develop the local leadership talent to a point where it is capable of providing the necessary thrust. Exposure to the literature on the subject, perhaps attendance at national professional conferences (e.g., AASA's National Academy for School Executives, the accountability conferences of the Educational Testing Service, etc.), and some well-planned discussion sessions should be helpful in gearing up the leadership. If the preliminary planning phase concludes with an unenthusiastic leadership group, some careful rethinking would be timely. Perhaps a performance contract with an external group might be worth considering seriously.

7. *Perhaps the most apparent limitation of innovative programs can be summarized in Donald Campbell's observation: "In the present political climate, reformers and administrators achieve their precarious permission to innovate by overpromising the certain efficacy of their new programs. This traps them so that they cannot afford to risk learning that the new programs were not effective."* [27]

Response: Our obvious response—be careful. Accountability programs, properly handled, yield visible results. You must be prepared to take that risk at the outset. The administrator who lightly purchases his ride on the accountability bandwagon with overpromises will be disappointed. Taken as a serious attempt to improve the process of educating children by focusing on their learning outcomes (or as a process to improve any operation), the conditions of the accountability process—especially those related to the level-of-confidence issue—are sobering. However, given affirmative answers to our imperatives, we think it is a risk worth taking.

The limitation of lack of research evidence is no stranger to educational practice. What evidence supports current educational practices? The critics' standard ploy, usually more rhetorical than sincere, is to point to a new proposal and loudly proclaim that it should be tested before it is used. They are right. It should be. To get below the surface of this issue, an appropriate response is to inquire further what kind of evidence would be acceptable to warrent moving forward with the new practice. The point should be pursued. Get a determination of what might be regarded as a criterion for accepting or rejecting educational programs based on research evidence. The next step should be obvious: conduct a formal assessment of current programs. This can serve several

purposes: (a) The standard "tried and proven" practices under examination often turn out to be "tired and unproven." (b) The rationale supporting both current and proposed practices should surface and be available for comparative analysis. (c) Formal needs assessment and the gathering of baseline data is the first step toward developing program accountability.

Below the program presentation problems raised by innovation characteristics and lack of research evidence lie more fundamental issues. Perhaps the key question might be, to what degree can (and should) we really hold people and programs accountable? You are asked to accept a pragmatic answer: to a degree that is more than generally practiced but far less than is theoretically possible. One reason for this answer is that the machinery for enacting accountability measures is still being developed, and while it has gotten beyond the threshold of primitive development, its usage has not reached a level of confidence akin to Caesar's wife. A second reason is found in human nature. A few people may regard themselves accountable to no one or for nothing; most will acknowledge a generalized accountability, and very few seek extensive accountability. To date, education has not called for the kind of accountable precision necessary for the launching of rockets in a space venture. This degree would be too cumbersome, unwieldy, and impractical for today. By the year 2001, who knows?

Part of our rationale supporting educationally accountable programs runs on these assumptions:[28]

- The schools exist primarily to produce publicly endorsed changes in the learning behavior of their major client, the student.
- Learning behaviors, expressed as outcomes, can be achieved in multiple ways, some more effective than others.
- Because the resources (time, money, staff, etc.) available in any school district are customarily less than the demands made upon them, it is encumbent upon the administrative staff to seek an optimum balance between the available resources and the most effective means of expending them in attaining publicly endorsed goals and objectives.
- Without the presence of some form of accountability process, it is difficult or impossible to gauge learner progress well—either individual or group—or instructional effectiveness for the purposes of decision making.
- Programs carrying the conditions of the accountability process lend themselves to better, more informed kinds of decision

making toward seeking the optimum balance between resource expenditures and learning achievement.

- Given sufficient time and operation, programs identified by the accountability process as "ineffective" (i.e., failing to pass the level-of-confidence review of results) should be modified, eliminated, or replaced by more effective ones.
- The accountability process is a vehicle that holds promise for improving learning outcomes, decision making, and rational adjustments to change pressures.

The validity of any assumption is open to question; accordingly, these assumptions are offered as a variety of limitation in presenting the program.

It is, however, between these assumptions and their translation into practice that two more serious questions arise: Is it possible to develop a set of effectiveness indicators that really indicate effectiveness? Is the present state of the art of evaluating learning outcomes able to yield useful measurements for accountability purposes?

We alluded earlier to the "criterion problem." The usual generalized practices used in seeking accountable employees hardly seem to meet minimum standards of reliability and relevancy.[29] At issue is whether the new proposals for accountability (e.g., MBO, PPBS, etc.) can actually offer (a) clear specifications for operating effectiveness, (b) objective measures that avoid being nonobjective or irrelevant, (c) subjective measures (where used) that are unbiased, (d) criteria that are updated over time, and in brief (e) establishment of an effectiveness profile that measures what it is supposed to measure. Most adherents of the accountability movement appear to believe that it is possible to varying degrees.[30] It is a limitation. On the other hand, if you abandon honest attempts to measure effectiveness, on what grounds do you base your decisions?

Concerning the present state of the art of evaluating learner outcomes, there are some limitations, particularly in the use of standardized tests in meeting the demands for accountability. Where standardized tests are involved, Klein notes, for example, there is inclined to be: a poor fit between the objectives of the school and those of the standardized tests; a problem inherent in the design and format of a test for a particular school population; poor instruction-giving and administering of the tests; and a problem of using standardized tests that do not measure what they claim to measure.[31] Such limitations would caution against indiscriminate reliance on standardized tests for accountability purposes. On the other hand, adherents of formative evaluation appear to be moving in a direction

that permits some useful measurements of instructional improvement.[32] In turn, this should be serviceable for accountability purposes.

A Rand Corporation study of five performance contracts (one approach toward accountability) listed several advantages and disadvantages accruing from performance contracts.[33] These appear to be worth noting here. Performance contracting is only one approach toward accountability, but it is one that strongly embraces the major conditions of the concept, including the predetermined agreement on the level-of-confidence issue.

On the positive side, the Rand study indicated that this form of accountability was capable of introducing radical changes in education, placed increased emphasis on accountability for student learning on the professional staff, and introduced new groups (external contractors) into education. Negatively, performance contracts were administratively complex, took a narrow focus "because of difficulties of defining objectives in subject areas other than those involving simple skills or, in some cases, difficulties in measuring the attainment of objectives," [34] and tended to raise some old problems ("The most severe have been legal questions, issues of teacher status, difficulties in supplying the needed management skills, and especially, problems of test selection and administration").[35] As expressed by this study and in the recent controversy on the use of performance contracts,[36] the problems involved in presenting accountability programs appear formidable. At the same time, there remains cause for optimism. Accountable results were obtained. They were able to analyze and account for instructional processes, cognitive growth, resource requirements, evaluation procedures, program management, and returns to contractors. Like the Wright brothers' flight at Kitty Hawk, the accountability process works—not well yet, but it does function.

Are you game to try? If you are, the Appendix offers some names of persons known to be knowledgeable about a particular aspect of things that lend themselves (by degree) to the accountability process. Certainly more names might have been added to this token listing. If the leads provided in our footnotes and text do not seem adequate to your needs, you may care to contact these parties for help or additional leads. While we offer no guarantee of how or whether these individuals will reply, they are known to be professionally oriented persons, and we assume they are likely to respond to reasonable requests.

APPENDIX

Some Approaches Toward Accountability and Persons and/or Districts Involved

Accountability Model Testing

Edward W. Beaubier, Director
Project Leadership
California School Administrators Association
2212 Dupont Drive, Suite Q
Irvine, California 92664

Marvin A. Nottingham
Director of Curriculum
Model for Educational Change Project
Norwalk-LaMirada Unified School District
Norwalk, California 90650

Robert Otto, Director
Staff Performance Improvement and Appraisal Program
Newport-Mesa Unified School District
Newport Beach, California 92663

Donald D. Woodington
Commissioner of Education
Cooperative Accountability Project (CAP)
State Department of Education
Denver, Colorado 80202

Assistant Superintendent
Field Proven Model of System Planning and Educational Accountability
Temple City Unified School District
Temple City, California 91780

Accountability Policy Making

Leon Lessinger, Dale Parnell, Roger Kaufman
Accountability: Policies and Procedures
Croft Educational Services
100 Garfield Avenue
New London, Connecticut 06320

A. Craig Phillips
Superintendent of Public Instruction
State Department of Public Instruction
Raleigh, North Carolina 27602

Clyde E. Stevens, Superintendent
Administrative Accountability Policy
Lake County Public Schools
201 W. Burleigh Blvd.
Tavares, Florida 32778

Accounting to the Public via Released Test Scores

Gordon Cawelti, Superintendent
Profiles of Achievement
Tulsa City Public Schools
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74101

Frank Dick, Superintendent
Toledo Public Schools
Manhattan and Elm
Toledo, Ohio 43608

John Ellis, Superintendent
Columbus School Profile
Columbus Public Schools
270 East State Street
Columbus, Ohio 43215

Robert R. Spillane, Superintendent
The New Rochelle School Profile
New Rochelle Public Schools
New Rochelle, New York 10801

Community Involvement in Educational Accountability

George L. Caldwell, Superintendent
Educational Management Systems Project
San Bernardino City Unified School District
San Bernardino, California 92410

Dwight M. Davis, Superintendent
Community Involvement Project
Des Moines Public Schools
Des Moines, Iowa 50309

Frank Dick, Superintendent
Toledo Public Schools
Manhattan and Elm
Toledo, Ohio 43608

Carroll A. Lang
Commission on Educational Planning
Phi Delta Kappa Headquarters
Eighth and Union
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

B. Keith Rose, Director
Program Development Center for Northern California
Chico State College
Chico, California 95926

Cost/Effectiveness

Emmett J. Moll, Executive Director
Budget Planning (Cost/Effectiveness Project)
Milwaukee Public Schools
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53208

Austin D. Swanson, Professor
Department of Educational Administration
State University of New York at Buffalo
Buffalo, New York 14214

Differentiated Staffing

Fenwick W. English, Assistant Superintendent
Sarasota County Public Schools
2418 Hatton Street
Sarasota, Florida 33577

Raymond G. Melton, Director
National Cluster Coordination Center
2418 Hatton Street
Sarasota, Florida 33577

James A. Moore, Director
Eastern Cluster Project
State Department of Education
Tallahassee, Florida 32302

Herbert R. Steffens, Director
Cluster Project
State Department of Education
Carson City, Nevada 89701

James Zaharis, Director
Special Projects
Mesa Public Schools
161 East First Street
Mesa, Arizona 85201

Educational Program Auditing

W. Stanley Kruger
U.S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202

William H. Webster, Director
System-Wide Evaluation
Dallas Independent School District
Dallas, Texas 75204

Project Accountability Survey
EPIC Diversified Systems Corporation
P.O. Box 13052
Tucson, Arizona 85711

Instructional Accountability

Marvin C. Alkin, Director
Center for the Study of Evaluation
University of California
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, California 90024

Raymond Bernabei, Assistant Superintendent
Division of Curriculum and Instruction
Bucks County Public Schools
Doylestown, Pennsylvania 18901

A. Craig Phillips
Superintendent of Public Instruction
State Department of Public Instruction
Raleigh, North Carolina 27602

Richard H. Van Deren, Superintendent
Plan for Effective Learning Management
Soquel Union Elementary School District
620 Monterey Avenue
Capitola, California 95010

Management by Objectives

Carroll W. Biggs
Alfred I. duPont School District
4 Mt. Lebanon Road
Wilmington, Delaware 19803

Frank Dick, Superintendent
Toledo Public Schools
Manhattan and Elm
Toledo, Ohio 43608

Spencer W. Myers, Superintendent Emeritus
c/o Ralph H. Lieber, Superintendent
Edina Public Schools
Edina, Minnesota 55424

Daryl W. Pelletier, Superintendent
Darien Public Schools
Darien, Connecticut 06820

Edward C. Pino, President
International Graduate School of Education
Box 10486 University Park Station
Denver, Colorado 80210

Douglas S. Ritchie, Superintendent
Madison Public Schools
Madison, Wisconsin 53703

Performance-Based Education

Albert L. Ayars
Superintendent of Schools
800 East City Hall Avenue
Norfolk, Virginia 23510

Karl Massanari, Director
Performance-Based Teacher Education Project
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
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Washington, D.C. 20036

Performance-Based Education (continued)

John Nicoll, Superintendent
Individualized Performance-Based Education Program
Vallejo City Unified School District
Vallejo, California 94590

Blaine P. Parkinson, Director
Individualized Performance-Based Teacher Education Program
College of Education
Weber State College
Ogden, Utah 84403

A. Craig Phillips
Superintendent of Public Instruction
State Department of Public Instruction
Raleigh, North Carolina 27602

Performance Contracting (external)

Charles Blaschke, President
Education Turnkey Systems
1660 L Street N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Nolan Estes, General Superintendent
Guaranteed Student Performance Project
Dallas Independent School District
Dallas, Texas 75204

George R. Hall
Rand Corporation
1700 Main Street
Santa Monica, California 90406

BRL Banneker School Project Director
Gary City Public Schools
620 East 10th Place
Gary, Indiana 46402

Performance Contracting (internal)

Richard P. Keoppe, Superintendent
Cherry Creek School District
Englewood, Colorado 80110

George N. Smith, Superintendent
Mesa Public Schools
549 North Stapley Drive
Mesa, Arizona 85201

Plan-Program-Budget Systems

Robert F. Alioto, Superintendent
Yonkers Public Schools
Yonkers, New York 10701

Todd A. Anton, Superintendent
Lincoln Unified School District
Stockton, California 95207

William C. Carey, Superintendent
Pacific Grove Unified School District
P.O. Box 448
Pacific Grove, California 93950

William H. Curtis, Consultant
Educational Resources Management System
AASA National Academy for School Executives
1801 North Moore Street
Arlington, Virginia 22209

Troy Earhart
Director, Planning and Budgeting
Dade County Public Schools
Miami, Florida 33132

Ray Holt, Assistant Superintendent for Business Affairs
Crosswalk-ERM Project
Memphis City Public Schools
Memphis, Tennessee 38103

James W. Jacobs
Associate Superintendent
Office of Planning, Management, and Computer Services
Montgomery County Public Schools
850 N. Washington
Rockville, Maryland 20850

Donald Levine, Professor
Department of Educational Administration
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York, New York 10027

Project Management, including Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT) and other techniques

Sam Bliss, Professor
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, Arizona 86001

Desmond L. Cook, Director
Educational Program Management Center
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43215

System-Based Technology

Sue Haggart
Rand Corporation
1700 Main Street
Santa Monica, California 90406

Voucher System Education

Henry Levin, Professor
School of Education
Stanford University
Stanford, California 94305

Frank Overlan
Director, Educational Voucher Project
123 Mt. Auburn Street
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138

NOTES

Notes to Part I

1. Alvin Toffler, *Future Shock* (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 2.

2. Ibid.

3. For other selections of futuristic observers, see Daniel Bell, ed., *Toward the Year 2000* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1968); Kenneth Boulding, *The Meaning of the 20th Century* (New York: Harper and Row, 1964); Harrison Brown, *The Challenge of Man's Future* (New York: Viking Press, 1954); Peter F. Drucker, *The Age of Discontinuity* (New York: Harper and Row, 1968); and Donald N. Michael, *The Unprepared Society* (New York: Basic Books, 1968).

Schoolmen are likely to be especially interested in 1985 Committee of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *Educational Futurism 1985: Challenges for Schools and Their Administrators.* (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971).

4. See B. F. Skinner, *Walden Two* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1948).

5. Sir Geoffrey Vickers, "Ecology, Planning, and the American Dream," in *The Urban Condition,* ed. Leonard Duhl (New York: Basic Books, 1963), p. 374.

6. Kenneth B. Clark, "Foreword," in *New Models for American Education,* ed. James Guthrie and Edward Wynne (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1971), pp. ix-x.

7. Toffler, *Future Shock,* p. 398.

8. Commission on the Preparation of Professional School Administrators, *The American School Superintendent,* ed. Stephen Knezevich (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1971), p. 12.

9. Ibid.

10. H. Thomas James finds six senses for defining accountability in "Public Expectations," in *Conferences on Educational Accountability* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1971).

11. An understanding of the more commonly used forms of *accountability* might become clearer if some closely related words are examined. These related terms include *answerable, responsible,* and *amenable.*

The terms *answerable* and *responsible* exhibit a close relationship in sense (i.e., both refer to some kind of answering or responding action), but there are some shades of difference between them in application. For example, a person is "answerable" for the tasks he himself undertakes, or for tasks left in his direct charge, or for the efforts of those who work closely with him whose work he is liable for (e.g., an executive is answerable for letters sent out of his office even if his secretary erred in sending them out). Being "responsible," on the other hand, carries a higher, more extended sense of obligation. A military general is responsible for the conduct of the men under him as a matter of trust, higher duty, and moral obligation (as implied in the commission he receives, stating that he is "an officer and a gentleman"). Similarly, public officials are responsible in the sense of carrying the obligation of responding to society as moral agents.

Both "answerable" and "responsible" carry implications of a pledge made for the performance of some act, a breach of which subjects the defaulter to punishment or penalties of some kind. To be "accountable," however, simply implies an explanation, an accounting, of what one has done or been doing. Whereas being answerable and being responsible pertain to obligation only, accountability results from the relationship between parties. A subordinate is accountable to his superior for the manner in which he has handled any tasks entrusted to him. In most families, a child is accountable to his parents for all his actions while he is under their jurisdiction. In a legal sense, "amenability" is a form of accountability within a framework of policies and regulations binding upon a person. For example, one is amenable to the laws of society and to the rules of the organization in which he is employed.

12. For an excellent discussion, see Sir Geoffrey Vickers, *The Art of Judgment* (New York: Basic Books, 1965), chap. 12.

13. A. D. Newman and R. W. Rowbottom, *Organization Analysis* (Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press, 1968), p. 26.

14. For interesting portraits of pressures of our times, see Michael W. Kirst, ed., *The Politics of Education at the Local, State, and Federal Levels* (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1970); and Luvern L. Cunningham, *Governing Schools: New Approaches to Old Issues* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971).

15. Stephen M. Barro, "An Approach to Developing Accountability Measures for the Public Schools," in *Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability,* ed., Lesley Browder (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971), p. 362.

16. Ibid., pp. 361-62.

17. Richard M. Nixon, "Messages on Education Reform," *American Education* 6 (April 1970): 30-34.

18. A. D. Hall and R. E. Fagen, "Definition of System," *General Systems,* vol. 1 (Yearbook of the Society for General Systems Research, 1956), p. 18.

19. Anatol Rapoport, "Mathematical Aspects of General Systems Analysis," in *General Systems,* vol. 2 (Yearbook of the Society for General Systems Research, 1966), p. 3.

20. Harry J. Hartley, *Educational Planning-Programming-Budgeting: A Systems Approach* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1968), p. 28.

21. David Easton, *A Framework for Political Analysis* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965).

22. For interesting readings and case studies, see Harley H. Hinrichs and Graeme M. Taylor, eds., *Program Budgeting and Benefit-Cost Analysis* (Pacific Palisades, Calif.: Goodyear Publishing Co., 1969).

23. A major comprehensive work is Talcott Parsons, et al., eds., *Theories of Society: Foundations of Modern Sociological Theory* (New York: Free Press, 1965). In the field of organization theory, see James G. March, ed., *Handbook of Organizations* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965).

24. For three well-conceived books of readings offering a sampling of these approaches, see David Novick, ed., *Program Budgeting: Program Analysis and the Federal Budget* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1967); Fremont J. Lyden and Ernest G. Miller, eds., *Planning - Programming - Budgeting: A Systems Approach to Management* (Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1968); and David I. Cleland and William R. King, eds., *Systems, Organizations, Analysis, Management: A Book of Readings* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969).

25. Hartley, *Educational Planning-Programming-Budgeting,* p. 44.

26. Benjamin S. Bloom, ed., et al., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain* (New York: Longmans, Green, 1956); and D. R. Krathwohl, B. S. Bloom, and B. B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain* (New York: David McKay, 1964).

27. Robert Mager, *Preparing Instructional Objectives* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1962). For developing objectives in the affective domain, see idem, *Developing Attitude Toward Learning* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1968).

28. Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960).

29. For a good review of these changes, begun in the 1950's and continued into the 1970's, see Maurie Hillson and Ronald Hymn, eds., *Change and Innovation in Elementary and Secondary Organization* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

30. For a fuller treatment of this theme, see Raymond Bernabei and Sam Leles, *Behavioral Objectives in Curriculum and Evaluation* (Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co., 1970).

31. Erick L. Lindman, "Benefits and Costs of Education," unpublished report to the California Advisory Council on Educational Research, Fall 1970, p. 2.

32. For an interesting, concise review of these areas defined in differing terms, see Barro, "An Approach to Developing Accountability Measures," pp. 362-67. See also "Accountability in Education," special issue, *Educational Technology* 11 (January 1971); Leon Lessinger, guest ed., "A Symposium on Accountability," *Journal of Secondary Education* 45 (December 1970): 339-80; "Teacher Accountability," special report, *Nation's*

Schools 89 (May 1972); and "Accountability," *Teachers College Record* 73 (February 1972): 339-70.

33. Howard J. Hjelm, "Foreword," in Desmond L. Cook, *Educational Project Management* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971), pp. iii-iv.

34. H. Thomas James, *The New Cult of Efficiency and Education* (Pittsburgh: Horace Mann Lecture Series, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1969), pp. 5-6.

35. W. Stanley Kruger, "Educational Accountability and the Educational Program Auditor," unpublished report, January 6, 1970. See also idem, "Program Auditor: New Breed on the Education Scene," *American Education* 6 (March 1970): 36.

36. For example, see "Outline of Educational Auditing Procedures," memorandum, U.S. Office of Education, April 3, 1970. Under "Attachment B: Suggested Audit Report Content Areas," along with the usual summary statements, it is expected that the report will include:

"Detailed critique of the product and process evaluation conducted for operation and management in each component, based on an assessment of the instruments used, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques, and data analysis presentation.

"Description of the auditor's on-site visit findings and their correlation with the evaluator's data and reports, on a component by component basis; summary of consistencies and discrepancies, and interpretation of the discrepancies."

Recommendations and insights into problems are expected also, but these will be muted somewhat, recognizing that "specific corrective action is a local decision."

37. Paul Woodring, *A Fourth of a Nation* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957).

38. Christopher Weber, "Three 'Rs' — Rows, Rifts, Resignations," *Newsday,* February 1, 1971, p. 11.

39. Letter from a friend, January 20, 1971.

40. W. Timothy Weaver, "The Delphi Forecasting Method," in *Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability,* ed. Lesley Browder (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971), pp. 171-83; and Frederick R. Cyphert and Walter L. Gant, "The Delphi Technique: A Tool for Collecting Opinions in Teacher Education," in *Emerging Patterns,* pp. 184-94.

Persons interested in information on educational futuristic planning should see 1985 Committee of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *Educational Futurism 1985.*

41. For example: N. John Rand and Fenwick English, "Toward a Differentiated Teaching Staff," *Phi Delta Kappan* 49 (January 1968): 264-68. For discussion on the pros and cons, see *Differentiated Staffing in Schools,* Special Report: Education USA (Washington, D.C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1970); Fenwick English and Donald Sharpes, *Strategies for Differentiated Staffing* (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1972); Richard Miga, "Important Considerations in Program Management Evaluation" (Fredonia, N.Y.: Chautauqua Project Report, 1970); James L. Olivero, "The Meaning and Application of Differentiated Staffing in Teaching," *Phi Delta Kappan* 52 (September 1970): 36-40; and John Fiorino, *Differentiated Staffing: A Flexible Instructional Organization* (New York: Harper and Row, 1972).

42. For example: Stanley Elam, "The Age of Accountability Dawns in Texarkana," *Phi Delta Kappan* 51 (June 1970): 509-14; Roald Campbell and James Lorion, *Performance Contracting in School Systems* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972); "Performance Contracting as Catalyst for Reform," *Educational Technology* 9 (August 1969): 5-9; *The School Executive's Guide to Performance Contracting* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1972); Education Turnkey Systems, *Performance Contracting in Education: The Guaranteed Student Performance Approach to Public School System Reform* (Champaign, Ill.: Research Press, 1970); George Hall, et al., *A Guide to Educational Performance Contracting* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corp., 1972); and Leon Lessinger, *Every Kid a Winner* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1970).

A special note of recognition must be made for Leon Lessinger, referred to by many as the "father" of the current accountability movement. Congressman Roman Pucinski, chairman of the House Subcommittee on Gen-

eral Education, has said: "Dr. Lessinger deserves the gratitude of the American people in having the foresight to encourage this experiment [Texarkana] and hopefully give overworked teachers in this country the assistance they can get from these major breakthroughs in educational technology." *Congressional Record,* August 13, 1969, p. E7021.

43. Fenwick English and James Zaharis, "Are Accountability and Governance Compatible?" *Phi Delta Kappan* 52 (February 1971): 375. See also idem, *Internal Educational Performance Contracting,* a report to the AASA National Academy for School Executives, October 1970.

44. Several interesting discussions of this form of accountability are available: Michael Usdan, "Citizen Participation: Learning from New York City's Mistakes," *Urban Review* 4 (September 1969): 9-12; Carroll Lang and Keith Rose, "Community Involvement in Educational Accountability," *Phi Delta Kappan* 54 (October 1972); Marilyn Gittell, *Participants and Participation* (New York: Center for Urban Education, 1967); Luvern Cunningham, ed., "What Do All Those People Want?" special issue, *Theory into Practice* 8 (October 1969); and Keith Rose, et al., *Educational Goals and Objectives: A Model Program for Community and Professional Involvement* (Chico, Calif.: Northern California Program Development Center, 1971).

45. Ellen Lurie, *How To Change the Schools* (New York: Random House, 1971).

46. T. H. Bell, "Advisory Statement on Development of Policy on Parental Involvement in Title I, ESEA Projects," memo to chief state school officers from U.S. Office of Education, October 30, 1970.

Another approach, appealing to the power of public information about the schools, is presented in Edward Wynne, *The Politics of School Accountability* (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1972).

47. A basic document to the voucher movement is *Education Vouchers: A Preliminary Report on Financing Education by Payments to Parents* (Cambridge, Mass.: Center for the Study of Public Policy, March 1970). The report usually is referred to as the Jencks report, after one of its better known drafters.

For some interesting discussions, see Henry Dyer, "Accountability: Education Vouchers," *United Teacher* 12 (November 22, 1970): 12, 13, 18; Christopher Jencks, "Giving Parents Money for Schooling: Education Vouchers," *Phi Delta Kappan* 52 (September 1970): 49-52; Ray Carr and Gerald Hayward, "Education by Chit: An Examination of Voucher Proposals," *Education and Urban Society* 2 (February 1970): 179-91.

48. W. Stanley Kruger, "Accountability in DSPC Programs: Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education," memorandum, U.S. Office of Education, April 3, 1970.

49. Note, for instance, the range of implications and degree of rigorousness in these sample definitions of accountability:

Sample 1: "[Accountability is] the right to insure a good education for the children of a community and to sever from the school system those who do not contribute to that end." Robert Lovett's quote of Mrs. Blanche Lewis, in "Professional Accountability in the Schools," *Record* (October 1970): 4.

Sample 2: "At a common sense level, there is accountability when resources and efforts are related to results in ways that are useful for policy making, resource allocation, or compensation. It probably makes more sense to think in terms of degrees and kinds of accountability rather than to assume that accountability either does or does not characterize education." Myron Lieberman, "An Overview of Accountability," *Phi Delta Kappan* 52 (December 1970): 194.

Sample 3: "The concept of educational accountability is a broad one, but is primarily concerned with those principles and techniques which may be utilized to assure a high level of attainment of the objectives of the educational enterprise, with an accompanying wise and efficient use of society's resources. The emphasis is upon performance. Although a central concern is the relationship of input to output, resources to results, the concept transcends mechanistic considerations for efficiency. The administrator is expected to place emphasis on planning *for* results as well as on assessment *of* results." Kruger, "Educational Accountability and the Educational Program Auditor," p. 1.

Sample 4: "Accountability . . . may be defined as an assignable, measurable responsibility to be fulfilled under certain conditions and within certain constraints." Russell B. Valaanderen and Arthur P. Ludka, "Evaluating Education in a Changing Society," in *Emerging State Responsibilities for Education*, ed. E. L. Morphet and D. L. Jessen (Denver, Colo.: Improving State Leadership in Education, 1970), p. 145.

Notes to Part II

1. Felix Lopez, "Accountability in Education," *Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability*, ed. Lesley Browder (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1971), pp. 386-87.

2. Ibid., pp. 385-86; Joseph Mazur, "Operationalizing Accountability in Public School Systems," in *Emerging Patterns*, p. 513.

3. Ibid. Echoes to Mazur's points seem implied in two recent works (no authors cited): *Viewpoints on Accountability* and *A Sourcebook for Implementing Accountability* (Tucson, Ariz.: Educational Innovators Press, 1971).

4. Luvern L. Cunningham, *Governing Schools: New Approaches to Old Issues* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971), pp. 191-98.

5. Stated or implied, most writers involved with the application of accountability programs manage to provide some indication of what they regard to be essential or absolutely necessary. A casual review of *Emerging Patterns*, pp. 361-523, should give a sense of this imperative explicating.

See also *Conferences on Educational Accountability* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1971); E. Wayne Roberson, ed., *Educational Accountability Through Evaluation* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1971); and Leon Lessinger and Ralph Tyler, eds., *Accountability in Education* (Worthington, Ohio: Charles Jones Publishing Co., 1971).

6. The reader should be further warned that Jacob Getzels, James Lipham, and Roald Campbell, *Educational Administration as a Social Process* (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), raise serious questions about such forms of advice-giving (see chap. 1). Their point is well taken. It is hoped that our more academically oriented readers will review these imperatives as key variables in a conceptual framework that should become apparent as they read.

7. Charles Lindblom presents a classic rationale for administrators making decisions by successive limited comparisons (called the "branch method") rather than by a rational-comprehensive approach ("root method"). See Charles Lindblom, "The Science of Muddling Through," *Public Administration Review* 19 (1959): 79-88. We are arguing that accountability programs require more attention to the "root method" than practitioners normally use.

8. Getzels, *Educational Administration as a Social Process*, p. 378. For a good effort to attain such information, see Keith Rose, et al., *Educational Goals and Objectives: A Model Program for Community and Professional Involvement* (Chico, Calif.: Northern California Program Development Center, 1971).

9. Amitai, Etzioni, "Schools as a 'Guidable' System," in *Freedom, Bureaucracy, and Schooling*, ed. Vernon Haubrich (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1971), p. 45.

10. Marilyn Hapgood, "The Open Classroom: Protect It from Its Friends," *Saturday Review* 54 (September 18, 1971): 66.

11. For a more extended explanation of this term and the norms surrounding it, see Lesley Browder, "A Surburban School Superintendent Plays Politics," in *The Politics of Education at the Local, State, and Federal Levels*, ed. Michael Kirst (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1970), pp. 191-93.

12. For further insights into the implications of good data, see Dorwin Cartwright, "Influence, Leadership, Control," in *Handbook of Organizations*, ed. James March (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965), chap. 1; David Krech, Richard Crutchfield, and Egerton Ballachey, "The Changing of Attitudes," in *Individual in Society* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962), chap. 7; and John Pfeiffer, *New Look at Education* (New York: Odyssey Press, 1966).

13. Desmond Cook, *Educational Project Management* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971), p. 203.

14. The literature on research project selection holds some works worth considering by administrators interested in what others do: N. R. Baker and W. H. Pound, "R and D Project Selection: Where We Stand," *IIEE Transactions on Engineering Management,* December 1964, pp. 124-34; and D. Z. Hertz and P. C. Carlson, "Selection, Evaluation, and Control of Research and Development Projects," in *Operations Research in Research and Development,* ed. B. Dean (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1963).

15. Dale Mann, "Administrator/Community/School Relationships in New York State," *Newsday,* November 4, 1971, p. 13A.

16. For two interesting expressions of the zero-reject point-of-view, see Leon Lessinger, "A Zero-Reject Program in a Comprehensive School District: Some Concrete Steps To Eliminate School Dropouts," *California School Administrator* 21 (November 1966); and Robert Weber, "The Early Warning System and the Zero Failure School: Professional Response to Accountability," *Journal of Secondary Education* 45 (December 1970): 369-76.

17. For a sophisticated expression of the zero-reject point of view, see Benjamin S. Bloom, "Learning for Mastery," *Evaluation Comment* 1 (May 1968): 1-12.

18. For some useful ideas on instruction, see Jerome Bruner, *The Process of Education* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1961); D. P. Ausubel, *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968); R. M. Gagne, *The Conditions of Learning* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965); Benjamin S. Bloom, J. Thomas Hastings, and George Madaus, *Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1971); and John B. Carroll, "A Model of School Learning," *Teachers College Record* 64 (May 1963): 723-33.

19. For some insightful advice on the importance of this expectation, see Lee J. Cronbach, "Evaluation for Course Improvement," *Teachers College Record* 64 (May 1963): 672-83; and Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation," in *Perspectives of Curriculum Evaluation,* ed. R. Stake (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967).

20. Douglas McGregor, "The Human Side of Enterprise," *Management Review* 46 (1957): 22-28, 88-92.

21. Frederick Herzberg, "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" *Harvard Business Review* 68 (January-February 1968): 53-62.

22. For excellent discussions on this topic, see Stephen Klein, "The Uses and Limitations of Standardized Tests in Meeting the Demands for Accountability," *Evaluation Comment* 2 (January 1971): 1-7; and idem, "Evaluating Tests in Terms of the Information They Provide," *Evaluation Comment* 2 (June 1970): 1-6.

23. Although it was too late to return the exercise machine, it was found that a student could operate this machine and keep the records of student achievement on it, freeing the athletic director for other tasks. Following up later, the author learned that the student picked to operate the machine was from a retarded-learner's class. The high-priced athletic director, freed from this "professional" responsibility, is now teaching driver education. A cost-effectiveness analysis on the driver education program has not yet been run. (What do you think they will find when it is?) For obvious reasons, this district asked not to be further identified. In a related line of work, an interesting book written by two practitioners is Robert Alioto and J. A. Jungherr, *Operational PPBS for Education* (New York: Harper and Row, 1971).

24. Raymond Bernabei, National Academy for School Executives Seminar on Accountability, Atlanta, Georgia, November 1971. For a now classic approach to curriculum and instruction, see Ralph W. Tyler, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950).

25. Undoubtedly there will be a few weeds in this garden. For example, think of some counterfeits you have probably seen under the labels of team teaching and nongraded instruction. Some schoolmen, happy to see anything at all growing, seem willing to let be. Others are more fussy. It is our hope that both sets know what they have and what its effects are.

26. Glen Heathers has written much about the problems of innovation in education; particularly useful are his "Guidelines for Reorganizing the School and the Classroom," in *Rational Planning in Curriculum and Instruction* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1967), pp. 63-86.

27. Donald T. Campbell, "Considering the Case Against Experimental Evaluations of Social Innovations," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 15 (March 1970): 111.

28. For a closely aligned set of assumptions, see Research Corporation of the Association of School Business Officials, *Educational Resources Management System* (working draft, 1971), chap. 2.

29. Lopez, "Accountability in Education, pp. 385-86. For an extended discussion of the "criterion problem" in research, see W. J. McKeachie's discussion in *Handbook for Research on Teaching,* ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963) pp. 1124-25.

30. See Browder, *Emerging Patterns,* pp. 361-523.

31. Klein, "Uses and Limitations of Standardized Tests."

32. For example, see Garth Sorenson, "Evaluation for the Improvement of Instructional Programs," *Evaluation Comment* 2 (January 1971): 13-18.

33. Polly Carpenter and George Hall, *Case Studies in Educational Performance Contracting: Conclusions and Implications* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corp., 1971).

34. Ibid., p. ix.

35. Ibid.

36. The use of performance contracts to stimulate accountable forms of learning was given a considerable setback with the announcement (January 31, 1972) from the U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity that "there is no evidence to support a massive move to utilize performance contracting for remedial education in the nation's schools. School districts should be skeptical of extravagant claims for the concept." The front-page story in the *New York Times,* February 1, 1972, "Learning-Plan Test Is Called a Failure," projected a gloomy picture.

But there seems to be a reasonable basis for doubt about the OEO contentions. The *AASA Convention Report,* prepared by the editors of *Education USA* and covering the highlights of the 1972 AASA convention, said (under the title, "Performance Contracting—A Premature Burial?") that the OEO may have reached its conclusions before performance contracting had an opportunity to work out its implementation problems. A number of factors (e.g., short lead times in operationalizing the contracts, "interface" problems with local schools, data on the improvement of student attitudes, motivation, attendance, lessening of discipline problems) seem to have been either lightly regarded or completely disregarded by OEO as significant. Charles Blaschke even countered the data offered by OEO. Some speculation was offered that the negative political pressure growing from teacher organizations toward OEO's educational venture in performance contracting crumpled OEO's enthusiasm (see, for example, UFT President Albert Shanker's "Performance Contracting in District 9: A Bronx Cheer for OEO," *New York Times,* January 2, 1972, p. E7).

We draw two conclusions: (a) It is highly probable that the contractors hurt themselves with oversell of their product; and (b) despite the counterclaims of the procontracting group, the shift of OEO funds from performance contracting experiments to something else is likely, in the absence of visible financial support from any other source, to kill off performance contracting. We still view it as promising and, with modification, viable. Among the modifications that should be considered is the greater use of involvement techniques at the initial planning stages (i.e., involve parents, students, teachers, etc.), a reasonable time period for staff training, and closer analysis of the currently operating performance contracting to learn from their mistakes.

At the same time, we do not feel that the success or failure of performance contracting — but one tool, one approach toward fulfilling the conceptual process of accountability— should significantly affect the usefulness of accountability. Jack Stenner and William Webster speak to this point in their *Educational Program Audit Handbook* (Alabama State Department of Education, 1971) by insisting that the concept of accountability be separated as a concept from the means used to attain its ends. Using

performance contracting as a case in point, they note: "This delineation is important because it discourages the association of the concept itself with failures in specific applications" (p. iv).

Much more satisfying, in contrast, is to see a program accounting for the success of its educational achievements. For example, the Staff Performance Improvement and Appraisal Program (SPIA) in Newport-Mesa, California. See Fred Niedermeyer and Stephen Klein, "An Empirical Evaluation of a District Teachers' Accountability Program," *Phi Delta Kappan* 54 (October 1972): 100-103. For staff reaction to the SPIA program, see also Susan Miller, "The Teachers' View of SPIA," *Phi Delta Kappan* 54 (October 1972): 104.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Lesley H. Browder, Jr., has served the public schools of four states, from classroom teacher through the superintendency. A magna cum laude, Phi Beta Kappa bachelor of arts from Lehigh University, he received his master of arts, master of education, and doctor of education degrees from Cornell University. Mr. Browder is recognized in the field of educational administration as both scholar and practitioner. He is a member of numerous honorary and professional groups and a past recipient of the Outstanding Teacher Award from the School of Education, Stanford University. Among his contributions to the literature on accountability are his compiled and edited work, *Emerging Patterns of Administrative Accountability,* and the forthcoming publication, *Developing an Educationally Accountable Program* (with co-authors William Atkins and Esin Kaya). He is currently an associate professor and chairman of the Department of Educational Administration, Hofstra University, Hempstead, New York.